# STANDARD

# \*LATIN GRAMMAR\*\*

FOR

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.







ELARKINESS.

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# SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

ΒY

ALBERT HARKNESS, PH. D., LL. D.,

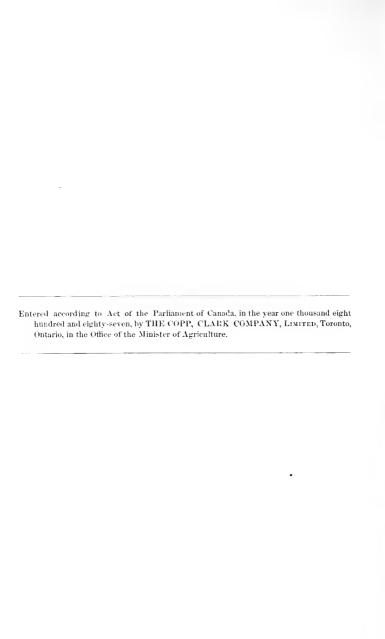
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## PREFACE

# TO THE REVISED EDITION.

The last quarter of a century has revealed many important facts in the development of language. During this period philological research has thrown new light upon Latin forms and inflections, upon the laws of phonetic change, upon the use of cases, moods, and tenses, and upon the origin and history of numerous constructions. The student of Latin grammar is now entitled to the full benefit of the important practical results which these labors in the field of linguistic study have brought within the proper sphere of the school. In securing this advantage, however, care must be taken not to divert the attention of the learner from the one object before him—the attainment of a full and accurate knowledge of the language.

The volume now offered to the public has been prepared in view of these facts. It is the result of a thorough and complete revision of the author's Latin Grammar published in 1864. To a large extent, indeed, it is a new and independent work; yet the paradigms, rules of construction, and in general all parts intended for recitation, have been only slightly changed. The aim of the work in its present form is threefold.

1. It is designed to present a clear, simple, and convenient outline of Latin grammar for the beginner. It

accordingly contains, in large type, a systematic arrangement of the leading facts and laws of the language, exhibiting not only grammatical forms and constructions, but also those vital principles which underlie, control, and explain them. The laws of construction are put in the form of definite rules, and illustrated by carefully selected examples. To secure convenience of reference, and to give completeness and vividness to the general outline, these rules, after having been separately discussed, are collected in a body at the close of the Syntax. Topics which require the fullest illustration are first presented in their completeness in general outline, before the separate points are explained in detail. Thus a single page often foreshadows the leading features of an extended discussion, imparting, it is believed, a completeness and vividness to the impression of the learner impossible under any other treatment.

- 2. It is intended to be an adequate and trustworthy grammar for the advanced student. By brevity and conciseness of phraseology, and by compactness in the arrangement of forms and topics, an ample collection of the most important grammatical facts, intended for reference, has been compressed within the limits of a convenient manual. Care has been taken to explain and illustrate, with the requisite fullness, all difficult and intricate subjects. The Subjunctive Mood and the Indirect Discourse have received special attention.
- 3. In a series of foot-notes it aims to bring within the reach of the student some of the more important results of recent linguistic research. Brief explanations are given of the working of phonetic laws, of the nature of inflection, of the origin of special idioms, and of various facts in the growth of language. But the distinguishing feature of this part of the work consists in the abundant

references which are made to some of the latest and best authorities upon the numerous linguistic questions naturally suggested by the study of Latin grammar.<sup>1</sup>

An attempt has been made to indicate, as far as practicable, the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant.<sup>2</sup>

With this brief statement of its design and plan, this volume is now respectfully committed to the hands of classical teachers.

In conclusion, the author is happy to express his grateful acknowledgments to the numerous friends who have favored him with valuable suggestions.

Brown University, Providence, R. I., July, 1881.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See page xv. It is hardly necessary to add that an acquaintance with the authorities here cited is by no means to be regarded as an indispensable qualification for the work of classical instruction. The references are intended especially for those who adopt the historical method in the study of language.

<sup>2</sup> See page 4, foot-note 4; also page 9, note 3.



# CONTENTS.

# PART FIRST.

Alphabet   1 Roman Method of Pronunciation   3 English Method   5 Continental Method   8 Quantity   8 Accentuation   9 Phonetic Changes   10 I. Changes in Vowels   11 II. Changes in Consonants   16  PART SECOND  ETYMOLOGY.  CHAPTERI  NOUNS.  Gender   21 Person, Number, and Case   22 Declension   23 First Declension   24 Greek Nouns   26 Greek Nouns   26 Greek Nouns   29 Third Declension   20 Class I.—Consonant-Stems   30 Stems in a Labial   30 Stems in a Dental   31 Stems in a Guttural   32 Stems in a Liquid or a Nasa   33 Stems in a Liquid or a Nasa   33 Stems in S   34 Class II.—I-Stems   35 Special Paradigms   39 Greek Nouns   39 Greek Nouns	ORTH	OG	R	<b>1</b> P	H	Y.									P	AGB
English Method	Alphabet										,					1
English Method	Roman Method of Pronunciation															3
PART SECOND.  ETYMOLOGY.  CHAPTER I.  NOUNS.  Gender	English Method										^					5
PART SECOND.  ETYMOLOGY.  CHAPTER I.  NOUNS.  Gender	Continental Method															8
PART SECOND.  ETYMOLOGY.  CHAPTER I.  NOUNS.  Gender	Quantity															8
PART SECOND.  ETYMOLOGY.  CHAPTER I.  NOUNS.  Gender	Accentuation															9
PART SECOND.  ETYMOLOGY.  CHAPTER I.  NOUNS.  Gender	Phonetic Changes															10
PART SECOND.  ETYMOLOGY.  CHAPTER I.  NOUNS.  Gender	I. Changes in Vowels .															11
PART SECOND.  ETYMOLOGY.  CHAPTER I.  NOUNS.  Gender	II. Changes in Consonants .															16
PART SECOND.  ETYMOLOGY.  CHAPTER I.  NOUNS.  Gender	O															
### CHAPTER I.    NOUNS.   21		_														
### CHAPTER I.    NOUNS.   21																
### CHAPTER I.    NOUNS.   21	PART	S	F	C.	0	Ν	D									
CHAPTER I.  NOUNS.  Gender	, ,, ,,	_	_	~	Ŭ		٠	٠								
NOUNS.   21	ETY	ΜO	L	ЭG	Y.											
NOUNS.   21	CHAI	рл	, <sub>T</sub>	5 T	,	т										
Gender         21           Person, Number, and Case         22           Declension         23           First Declension         24           Greek Nouns         26           Second Declension         26           Greek Nouns         29           Third Declension         30           Class 1.—Consonant-Stems         30           Stems in a Labial         30           Stems in a Dental         31           Stems in a Guttural         32           Stems in a Univideal         32	CHAI	ו ז	r	2 I	Ĺ	ı	•									
Declension       23         First Declension       24         Greek Nouns       26         Second Declension       26         Greek Nouns       29         Third Declension       30         Class 1.—Consonant-Stems       30         Stems in a Labial       30         Stems in a Dental       31         Stems in a Guttural       32         Stems in a Unitial National Stems       32	N	ωU	NS	3.												
Declension       23         First Declension       24         Greek Nouns       26         Second Declension       26         Greek Nouns       29         Third Declension       30         Class 1.—Consonant-Stems       30         Stems in a Labial       30         Stems in a Dental       31         Stems in a Guttural       32         Stems in a Unitary No.       32	Gender															21
Declension       23         First Declension       24         Greek Nouns       26         Second Declension       26         Greek Nouns       29         Third Declension       30         Class 1.—Consonant-Stems       30         Stems in a Labial       30         Stems in a Dental       31         Stems in a Guttural       32         Stems in a Unitary No.       32	Person Number, and Case	•		•		•		•		•		•				22
Greek Nouns         26           Second Declension         26           Greek Nouns         29           Third Declension         30           Class 1.—Consonant-Stems         30           Stems in a Labial         30           Stems in a Dental         31           Stems in a Guttural         32           Stems in a Limitors Now         32	Declension				•		•		•		•		-		,	23
Greek Nouns         26           Second Declension         26           Greek Nouns         29           Third Declension         30           Class 1.—Consonant-Stems         30           Stems in a Labial         30           Stems in a Dental         31           Stems in a Guttural         32           Stems in a Limitors Now         32	First Declension	•		•		•			_	•		•		•		24
Class 1.—Consonant-Stems   30   Stems in a Labial   30   Stems in a Dental   31   Stems in a Guttural   32   Stems in a Guttural   33   Stems in a Guttural   34   Stems in a Guttural   35   Stems in a Guttural   36   Stems in a Guttural   37   Stems in a Guttural   38   Stems in a Guttural   39   Stems in a Guttural   39   Stems in a Guttural   30   Stems in a Guttural   31   Stems in a Guttural   32   Stems in a Guttural   33   Stems in a Guttural   34   Stems in a Guttural   35   Stems in a Guttural   36   Stems in a Guttural   37   Stems in a Guttural   38   Stems in a Guttural   39   Stems in a Guttural   30   Stems in a Guttura	Greek Nouns		•		•								•			26
Class 1.—Consonant-Stems   30   Stems in a Labial   30   Stems in a Dental   31   Stems in a Guttural   32   Stems in a Guttural   33   Stems in a Guttural   34   Stems in a Guttural   35   Stems in a Guttural   36   Stems in a Guttural   37   Stems in a Guttural   38   Stems in a Guttural   39   Stems in a Guttural   39   Stems in a Guttural   30   Stems in a Guttural   31   Stems in a Guttural   32   Stems in a Guttural   33   Stems in a Guttural   34   Stems in a Guttural   35   Stems in a Guttural   36   Stems in a Guttural   37   Stems in a Guttural   38   Stems in a Guttural   39   Stems in a Guttural   30   Stems in a Guttura	Second Declension															26
Class 1.—Consonant-Stems   30   Stems in a Labial   30   Stems in a Dental   31   Stems in a Guttural   32   Stems in a Guttural   33   Stems in a Guttural   34   Stems in a Guttural   35   Stems in a Guttural   36   Stems in a Guttural   37   Stems in a Guttural   38   Stems in a Guttural   39   Stems in a Guttural   39   Stems in a Guttural   30   Stems in a Guttural   31   Stems in a Guttural   32   Stems in a Guttural   33   Stems in a Guttural   34   Stems in a Guttural   35   Stems in a Guttural   36   Stems in a Guttural   37   Stems in a Guttural   38   Stems in a Guttural   39   Stems in a Guttural   30   Stems in a Guttura	Greek Nouns															29
Stems in a Labial       30         Stems in a Dental       31         Stems in a Guttural       32         Stems in a Limitary Name       32	Third Declension															30
Stems in a Labial       30         Stems in a Dental       31         Stems in a Guttural       32         Stems in a Limitary Name       32	Class 1.—Consonant-Stems															30
Stems in a Dental	Stems in a Labial				,											30
Stems in a Guttural       32         Stems in a Liquid or a Nasa.       33         Stems in S       34         Class II.—L-Stems       35         Special Paradigms       39         Greek Nouns       40         Synopsis of the Third Declension       41         Gender       46	Stems in a Dental .															31
Stems in a Liquid or a Nasa.       33         Stems in S       34         Class H.—I-Stems       35         Special Paradigms       39         Greek Nouns       40         Synopsis of the Third Declension       41         Gender       46	Stems in a Guttural .															32
Stems in S       34         Class H.—I-Stems       35         Special Paradigms       39         Greek Nouns       40         Synopsis of the Third Declension       41         Gender       46	Stems in a Liquid or a Nasa	ì.														33
Class H.—I-Stems       35         Special Paradigms       39         Greek Nouns       40         Synopsis of the Third Declension       41         Gender       46	Stems in $S$									•						34
Special Paradigms         39           Greek Nouns         40           Synopsis of the Third Declension         41           Gender         46	Class II.—I-Stems															35
Greek Nouns	Special Paradigms															39
Synopsis of the Third Declension	Greek Nouns															40
Gender 46	Synopsis of the Third Declens	ion														41
Tender 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Gender									·						46

														PAGE
Fifth Declension			•					٠						50
General Table of Gender .		٠							٠					51
Declension of Compound Nouns	·		٠					•						52
Irregular Nouns				•			٠		٠					53
1. Indeclinable														53
II. Defective													٠	53
III. Heteroclites								٠						55
Fifth Declension General Table of Gender Declension of Compound Nouns Irregular Nouns I. Indeclinable II. Defective III. Heteroclites IV. Heterogeneous											٠		٠	56
СНА														
					1 1	•								
		ECT												
First and Second Declensions			•		•	•		٠		٠		•		57
First and Second Declensions Third Declension Irregular Adjectives				•			•				•		•	59
irregular Adjectives	•		•		•	٠		٠		٠		٠		62
Comparison				•	•						٠		٠	63
1. Terminational Compari	son				•			٠		•				63
Comparison	•	•			•		٠		٠		•		-	63
Numerals	٠				•	٠		٠		٠		٠		65
	_			_										
СНА	·P	TE	R	1	11	•								
	PRO	ONO	UN	s.										
I. Personal Pronouns .														70
II. Possessive Pronouns .														71
III. Demonstrative Pronouns														72
IV. Relative Pronouns														74
V. Interrogative Pronouns														75
VI. Indefinite Pronouns					,									76
I. Personal Pronouns II. Possessive Pronouns III. Demonstrative Pronouns IV. Relative Pronouns VI. Interogative Pronouns VI. Indefinite Pronouns Table of Correlatives.													٠	77
CHA	1 P	T 1	s K	-	V	•								
77 · 36 · 1	V	ERI	BS.											=0
Voices, Moods Tenses Numbers, Persons Infinitive, Gerund, Supine Participle Conjugation Paradigms of Verbs Comparative View of Conjugati			•		•	•		•		٠		٠		78
Tenses		•		•	•		٠		•		•		•	80
Numbers, Persons	•		٠			•		•		•		•		81 81
Innuitive, Gerund, Supine	•	٠			•		•		•				•	82
Participie	•		•		•	•		•		•		•		82
Conjugation	•			•	•		•		•					84
Paradigms of Verbs			•			٠		٠		•				100
Comparative View of Conjugati	ions				•		•		•		•		•	102
Verbs in 10: Conjugation III.	•		•		•	•		•		•				100
verbai innections	•	٠		•	•		٠		•		٠		•	110
Synopsis of Conjugation .	•		٠		•	٠		٠		٠		•		110
Deponent verbs		•		•	•		•		•		•			114
rempirastic Conjugation .	•		٠		•	٠		•		•				114
recunarties in Conjugation					•		•		٠		•		٠	110
Analysis of Verbal Endings.	•		•			٠		•		٠		٠		117
I. Tense-signs .	•	٠		٠	•		•		•		•		•	117
Comparative View of Conjugative Verbs in 15: Conjugation III. Verbal Inflections Synopsis of Conjugation Deponent Verbs Periphrastic Conjugation Peculiarities in Conjugation Analysis of Verbal Endings II. Mood-signs III. Mood-signs III. Personal Endings			•							•		٠		118

	0.	N'	TE	ZV	TS											ix
																PAGE
Formation of Stems  I. Present Stem II. Perfect Stems III. Supine Stem Classification of Verbs First Conjugation Second Conjugation Third Conjugation Fourth Conjugation Irregular Verbs Defective Impersonal																119
I Present Stem		•		•		•		•		•		•		•		119
II Parfact Stems			•		•		•		•		•		•		•	121
III Suniue Stem		•		•		٠		•		•		•		•		122
Classification of Vorbs	•		•		•		•		•		•		•		•	122
First Conjugation		•		•		•		•		•		•				122
Second Conjugation			•		•		•		•		•		•		•	124
Third Conjugation		•		•		•		•		•		•		•		127
Fourth Conjugation			•		•		•		•		•		•		•	134
Innomian Verbs		•		•		•		•		•		•				135
Defeative	•		•		•		•		•		•		•		•	141
Impersonal		•		•		•				•		•		٠		143
Impersonal	•		•		•		٠		•		•		•			140
СН	$\Lambda$	P	Т	Е	R		v.									
	PA	R.	ΓIC	CLI	ŝ.											
Adverbs																144
Table of Correlatives																147
Comparison																149
Prepositions																149
Conjunctions																150
Adverbs Table of Correlatives Comparison Prepositions Conjunctions Interjections																152
CF	IA	P	ΤF	ER	1	Ί.										
FORM.																
I. Roots, Steins, Suffixes Primary Suffixes II. Derivation of Words Derivative Nouns Derivative Adjectives Derivative Verbs III. Composition of Words Compound Nouns Compound Adjectives Compound Verbs																152
Primary Suffixes .																155
II. Derivation of Words																158
Derivative Nouns .																158
Derivative Adjectives												,				165
Derivative Verbs .																169
III Composition of Words																172
Compound Youns						•										173
Compound Adjectives	Ċ															174
Compound Verbs .		•		•		•		•		•		•				175
compound versi.	•				•		Ť						•		-	
PAR	Т		T	ŀ	H		R	D								
	S	Y?	NT.	ΑŅ	ζ.											
C	H	ΛI	ЭΤ	Έl	R	I.										
SYNTA	X	0	F	SE.	NT	E.	CE	s.								
I. Classification of Sentences II. Elements of Sentences										•						$\frac{179}{182}$

# CHAPTER II.

## SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

I.	Agreement of Nouns							18: 18:
	Predicate Nouns					-		18
	Annositives		•				•	18
П.	Agreement of Nouns Predicate Nouns Appositives General View of Cases Nominative, Vocative I. Nominative II. Vocative Accessative	٠						188 186
III	Nominative Vocative						•	187
	I Nominative	3						
	II Vocativo						,	188
137	Accessative	•		¢				189
TA	I Direct Off		•				-	
	1. Direct Object			•				189
	Two Accusatives		,					191
	II. Accusative in an Adverbial Sense .							19:
	Acensative of Specification						0	193
	Accusative of Time and Space .							194
	Accusative of Limit				0			195
	Accusative of Limit							19t
V.	Dative							196
	Dative Dative with Verbs—Indirect Object Dative with Special Verbs Dative with Compounds Dative of Possessor							197
	Dative with Special Verbs				۰			199
	Dative with Compounds							201
	Dative of Possessor	•	٠.	•		0		202
	Dative of Possessor		۰		٠		۰	202
	Ethical Dativo	٥		•		0		203
	Two Detives		٠.				^	204
	Two Datives	۰ °		•		٠		204
					۰		•	
***	Dative with Nouns and Adverbs .							205
V 1.	Genitive		0					206
	Genitive with Nouns Genitive with Adjectives Predicate Genitive	- 3		•				206
	Genitive with Adjectives							210
	Predicate Genitive			0		n		212
	Genitive with Special Verbs		9					213
	Accusative and Genitive							215
VII.	Ablative						,	217
	Ablative							218
	Ablative of Place from which							218
	Ablative of Separation, Source, Cause	٠.				,		218
	Ablative with Comparatives	•			9			222
	II. Instrumental Ablative						•	223
	Ablative of Accompaniment	•				•		223
	Ablative of Means		•		٠		•	224
	Ablative in Cassial Constructions	•				•		225
	Ablative in Special Constructions . Ablative of Price				•			226
	Adiative of Frice	•		*		•		226
	Ablative of Difference		*		•			
	Ablative of Specification	•				•		227
	III. Locative Ablative		•		٠		٠	227
	Ablative of Place	٠		٠		,		227
	Ablative of Time		3					229
	Ablative Absolute	e		0				231
III.	Cases with Prepositions							232

# CHAPTER III.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.				PAGE
Agreement of Adjectives		•		$239 \\ 241$
CHAPTER IV.				
SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.				
Agreement of Pronouns				244
Use of Pronouns				246
Personal, Possessive				246
Reflexive				247
Demonstrative				248
Relative				251
Interrogative				252
Agreement of Pronouns Use of Pronouns Personal, Possessive Reflexive Demonstrative Relative Interrogative Indefinite	٠		•	252
CHAPTER V.				
SYNTAX OF VERBS.				
I. Agreement of Verbs—Use of Voices				254
II. Indicative and its Tenses				257
Tenses of Indicative				257
Use of Indicative				262
III. General View of the Subjunctive and its Tenses .				264
IV. Subjunctive in Principal Clauses				200
Subjunctive of Desire				265
Potential Subjunctive				266
IV. Subjunctive in Principal Clauses Subjunctive of Desire Potential Subjunctive V. Imperative and its Tenses VI. Moods in Subordinate Clauses L. Taylor of Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses		٠		268
VI. Moods in Subordinate Clauses  I. Tenses of Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses II. Subjunctive in Clauses of Purpose III. Subjunctive in Clauses of Result IV. Moods in Conditional Sentences			•	269
I. Tenses of Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses .		٠		269
II. Subjunctive in Clauses of Purpose	•			273
111. Subjunctive in Clauses of Result		•		$\frac{276}{280}$
IV. Moods in Conditional Sentences .	•		٠	$\frac{280}{287}$
V. Moods in Concessive Clauses		٠		$\frac{287}{289}$
IV. Moods in Conditional Sentences V. Moods in Concessive Clauses VI. Moods in Causal Clauses VII. Moods in Temporal Clauses	•		•	291
VII. Indirect Discourse		٠		$\frac{291}{296}$
Monds and Tonges in Indirect Discourse	٠		•	$\frac{296}{296}$
Moods and Tenses in Indirect Discourse . Persons and Pronouns in Indirect Discourse		•		299
Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse .	•		•	299
Indirect Clauses		•		
VII. Infinitive—Substantive Clauses	•		•	306
I. Infinitive		٠		306
VII. Infinitive—Substantive Clauses  I. Infinitive Infinitive with Verbs Accusative and Infinitive with Verbs	•		٠	306
Accusative and Infinitive with Verbs .		•		308
Subject of Infinitive				310
Subject of Infinitive Tenses of Infinitive Infinitive in Special Constructions II Substantive Clauses				311
Infinitive in Special Constructions				313
II Substantive Clauses				314

VIII. Gerunds, Gerundives, Supines, and Participles       314         I. Gerunds       314         III. Supines       316         III. Supines       317         IV. Participles       318         CHAPTER VI.         SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.         Adverbs       320         Conjunctions       321         Interjections       324         CHAPTER VII.         Rules of Syntax       324         CHAPTER VIII.         ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.         Arrangement of Words       333         Arrangement of Clauses       336         PART FOURTH.         PROSODY.         CHAPTER I.         QUANTITY.         I. General Rules of Quantity       338         III. Quantity in Final Syllables       339         III. Quantity in Increments       342         Increments of Declension       342         Increments of Declension       342         Increments of Declension       344         V. Quantity of Stem-Syllables       344         CHAPTER II.         VERSIFICA	VIII. Gerunds, Gerundives, Supines, and Participles			PAGE
CHAPTER VI.  SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.  Adverbs	I. Gerunds			314
CHAPTER VI.  SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.  Adverbs				314
CHAPTER VI.  SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.  Adverbs	II. Gerundives			316
CHAPTER VI.  SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.  Adverbs	III. Supines			317
SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.  Adverbs	IV. Participles			318
SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.  Adverbs	CHADTED VI			
Adverbs				
Conjunctions   321   324				000
CHAPTER VII.   S24	Adverbs		٠	
CHAPTER VII.  Rules of Syntax	Conjunctions	•		
CHAPTER VIII.     AREANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.     Arrangement of Words   323     Arrangement of Clauses   336     PART FOURTH.     PROSODY.     CHAPTER I.     QUANTITY.     I. General Rules of Quantity   338     II. Quantity in Final Syllables   339     III. Quantity in Increments   342     Increments of Declension   342     Increments of Conjugation   344     IV. Quantity of Derivative Endings   344     V. Quantity of Stem-Syllables   346     CHAPTER II.     VERSIFICATION.	Interjections	•	•	024
CHAPTER VIII.  ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.  Arrangement of Words	CHAPTER VII.			
CHAPTER VIII.  ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.  Arrangement of Words	Rules of Syntax			324
ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.  Arrangement of Words				
Arrangement of Words	CHAPTER VIII.			
Arrangement of Clauses  PART FOURTH.  PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.			
### PART FOURTH.    PROSODY.   CHAPTER I.	Arrangement of Words			383
PART FOURTH.  PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	Arrangement of Clauses			336
PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	5			
PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	mining			
PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity				
CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity				
QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	PART FOURTH.			
QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity				
I. General Rules of Quantity       338         II. Quantity in Final Syllables       339         III. Quantity in Increments       342         Increments of Declension       342         Increments of Conjugation       344         IV. Quantity of Derivative Endings       344         V. Quantity of Stem-Syllables       346    CHAPTER II. VERSIFICATION.	PROSODY.			
Increments of Conjugation  IV. Quantity of Derivative Endings	PROSODY. CHAPTER I.			
Increments of Conjugation  IV. Quantity of Derivative Endings	PROSODY. CHAPTER I.			
Increments of Conjugation  IV. Quantity of Derivative Endings	PROSODY. CHAPTER I.	•		
Increments of Conjugation  IV. Quantity of Derivative Endings	PROSODY. CHAPTER I.	•		339
CHAPTER II.  VERSIFICATION.	PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	•		$\frac{339}{342}$
CHAPTER II.  VERSIFICATION.	PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	•	•	$339 \\ 342 \\ 342$
CHAPTER II. VERSIFICATION.	PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	•	•	339 342 342 344
VERSIFICATION.	PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	•	•	339 342 342 344 344
VERSIFICATION.	PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	•	•	339 342 342 344 344
0.40	PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity II. Quantity in Final Syllables	•	•	339 342 342 344 344
Feet	PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	•	•	339 342 342 344 344
Verses 351 Figures of Prosody 353	PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	•	•	339 342 342 344 344 346
Figures of Prosody	PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	•	•	339 342 342 344 346 346
	PROSODY.  CHAPTER I.  QUANTITY.  I. General Rules of Quantity	•		339 342 342 344 344 346

	CONTENTS.					xiii
						PAGE
Π.	Varieties of Verse			٠		354
	I. Daetylie Hexameter		٠			354
	II. Other Dactylic Verses III. Trochaic Verse					358
	III. Trochaic Verse					359
	IV. Iambic Verse					360
	V. Ionie Verse					361
	VI, Logaoedic Verse					362
III.	VI. Logacedic Verse					364
	Vergil, Juvenal, Ovid, Horace					364
	Lyric Metres of Ilorace					364
	Index to Lyrie Metres of Horace					368
	Catullus, Martial, Seneca, Plautus, Terence					368
	A P P E N D I X.					
	4.0					
_I.	Figures of Speech	٠		•		370
11.	Latin Language and Literature		٠		•	374
Ш.	Roman Calendar					376
IV.	Roman Money, Weights, and Measures					378
٧.	Roman Names					380
	Abbreviations					380
VI.	Vowels before Two Consonants or a Double Consonant					381
Inde	ex of Verbs					383
	eral Index			•		390



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<sup>1</sup> The publication of this work in 1833 marked an era in philological studies,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See also Brambach, W. Die Neugestaltung der lateinischen Orthographie. Leipzig, 1568.

<sup>3</sup> An edition with modifications by J. Windekilde was published at Bonn, 1879.

<sup>4</sup> Two other valuable works by the same author are ;

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<sup>6</sup> This periodical contains the latest views upon numerous questions connected with comparative philology and linguistic science.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This work of Sievers forms the first volume and that of Meyer the third in the series of Indo-European grammars now in course of publication.

# LATIN GRAMMAR.

1. Latin Grammar treats of the principles of the Latin language. It comprises four parts:

I. ORTHOGRAPHY, which treats of the letters and sounds

of the language.

II. ETYMOLOGY, which treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.

III. SYNTAX, which treats of the construction of sentences.

IV. Prosody, which treats of quantity and versification.

# PART FIRST.

# ORTHOGRAPHY.

#### ALPHABET.

2. The Latin alphabet is the same as the English with the omission of w.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Romans derived their alphabet from the Greek colony at Cumae. In its original form it contained twenty-one letters:  $\Lambda$ , B, C, D, E, F,  $\Pi$ , I, K, I, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, X, Z. C was a modification of the Greek gamma, and F of the digamma. Q was the Greek koppa, which early disappeared from the Greek alphabet. C had the sound afterward denoted by g; K, the sound afterward denoted by c. Z early disappeared from the Latin alphabet, but was subsequently restored, though only in foreign words. Throughout the classical period only capital letters were used. On the Mphabet, see Whitney, pp. 59–70: Papillon, pp. 28–15; Wordsworth, pp. 5–10; Roby, I., pp. 21–62: Sievers, pp. 24–108; Corssen, I., pp. 1–346; Kühner, I., pp. 35–49.

- 1. C in the fourth century B. c. supplied the place both of C and of G.
- 2. G, introduced in the third century B. c., was formed from C by simply changing the lower part of that letter.
- 3. Even in the classical period the original form C was retained in abbreviations of proper names beginning with G. Thus C stands for Gains, Cn, for Gnaeas. See 649.
- 4. J, j, modifications of I, i, introduced in the seventeenth century of our era to distinguish the consonant I, i from the vowel I, i, are rejected by many recent editors, but retained by others.
- 5. The letters u and r, originally designated by the character V, are now used in the best editions, the former as a vowel, the latter as a consonant.
- 6. In classical Latin, k is seldom used, and y and z occur only in foreign words, chiefly in those derived from the Greek.
- 3. Letters are divided according to the position of the vocal organs at the time of atterance into two general classes, vowels and consonants, and these classes are again divided into various subdivisions, as seen in the following

#### CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS.

#### I. VOWELS.

l.	OPEN VOWEL 4		•		٠	•			a		
2.	MEDIAL VOWELS			-				е		0	
3.	Close vowels 5						i		y		u

<sup>&#</sup>x27;1 Throughout the classical period, I, used both as a vowel and as a consonant, supplied the place of I, i and J, j. As practical convenience has, however, already sanctioned the use of i, n, and r, characters unknown to the ancient Romans, may it not also justify the use of J, J in educational works, especially as the Romans themselves attempted to find a suitable modification of J to designate this consonant?

<sup>2</sup> Originally V, used both as a vowel and as a consonant, supplied the place of U, u and V, v, but it was subsequently modified to U.

<sup>3</sup> If the vocal organs are sufficiently open to allow an uninterrupted flow of vocal sound, a vowel is produced, otherwise a consonant; but the least open vowels are scarcely distinguishable from the most open consonants. Thus *i*, sounded fully according to the ancient pronunciation as ee, is a vowel; but, combined with a vowel in the same syllable, it becomes a consonant with the sound of  $y : e' \cdot \bar{\imath} \ (\bar{a}' \cdot ee$ , vowel),  $\bar{e}' \cdot \bar{\jmath} us \ (\bar{a}' \cdot yus$ , consonant, almost identical in sound with  $\bar{a}' \cdot ee \cdot us$ ).

4 In pronouncing the open vowel a as in father, the vocal organs are fully open. By gradually contracting them at one point and another we produce in succession the media vowels, the close vowels, the semivowels, the nasals, the aspirate, the fricatives, and finally the mutes, in pronouncing which the closure of the vocal organs becomes complete.

b E is a medial vowel between the open a and the close i, o a medial vowel between the open a and the close u; i is a palatal vowel, u a labial; y was introduced from the Greek. The vowel scale, here presented in the form of a triangle, may be represented as a line, with a in the middle, with i at the palatal extreme, and with u at the labial extreme:

#### II. CONSONANTS.

	C				GUTIURALS.	DENTALS.	Labials,
1	. Semivowels, sonant			٠	$\mathbf{i}$ or $\mathbf{j} = y$		$\mathbf{v} = v$
2	. Nasals, sonant				$\mathbf{n}^{1}$	n	m
3	. Aspirate, surd .				h		
4	. Fricatives, comprising						
	1. Liquids, sonant .					1, r	
	2. Spirants, surd					8	f
5	. Mutes, comprising						
	1. Sonant Mutes .				g	d	ъ
	2. Surd Mutes .				c. k. a	t	D

Note 1. - Observe that the consonants are divided.

- I. According to the organs chiefly employed in their production, into
  - 1. Gutturals—throat letters, also called Palatals:
  - 2. Dentals-teeth letters, also called Linguals;
  - 3. Labials-lip letters.
- II. According to the MANNER in which they are uttered, into
  - 1. Sonants, or voiced letters;
  - 2. Surds, or voiceless letters.2

Note 2.—X=cs, and z=ds, are double consonants, formed by the union of a mute with the spirant s.

4. DIPHTHONGS are formed by the union of two vowels in one syllable.

Note.—The most common diphthongs are ae, oe, au, and eu. Ei, oi, and ui are tare.

#### ROMAN METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.6

## 5. Vowels.—The vowel sounds are the following:

- With the sound of n in concord, linger. It occurs before gutturals: congréssus, meeting.
- <sup>2</sup> The distinction between a *sonant* and a *surd* will be appreciated by observing the difference between the sonant b and its corresponding surd p in such words as bad, pad. B is vocalized, p is not.
- $^3$  X often represents the union of g and s, but in such cases g is probably first assimilated to  $c_7$  see 30, 33, 1.
- 4 Proper diphthongs were formed originally by the union of an open or medial vowel, a. e, or o, with a close vowel, i or u, as ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou. An improper diphthong was also formed by the union of the two close vowels, as ui. For the weakening of these original diphthongs, see 23, note.
- In this country three distinct methods are recognized in the pronunciation of Latin. They are generally known as the Roman, the English, and the Continental Methods. The researches of Corssen and others have revealed laws of phonetic change of great value in tracing the history of Latin words. Accordingly, whatever method of pronunciation may be adopted for actual use in the class-room, the pupil should sooner or later be made familiar with the leading features of the Roman Method, which is of least an approximation to the ancient pronunciation of the language.

Long.	1				SHORT.	
$\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ like $\ddot{a}$ in f <b>a</b> ther:	$\tilde{a}'$ - $r\tilde{\imath}s$ , $\tilde{a}'$	ı like	$\alpha$	$_{ m in}$	Cub <b>a</b> :3	a'-met.
ē " e " prey:2	$\bar{e}'$ - $d\bar{\imath}$ .	e "	e	"	net:	re'-get.
ī " ï " machine:2	ī'-rī. i	"	i	"	cigar:	vi'-det.
ō " ō " •ld:	$\bar{o}'$ - $r\bar{a}s$ .	٠. (	0	"	obey:	mo'-net.
ū " ų " rule:²⊂	$\bar{u}'$ - $n\bar{o}$ .	1 "	u	"	full:	su'- $mus$ .

- 1. A short vowel in a long syllable is pronounced short: sunt, 4 u as in sum, su'-mus. But see 16, note 2.
- 2. **Y**, found only in Greek words, is in sound intermediate between the Latin i and u, similar to the French u and the German  $\bar{u}: N\bar{y}'$ -sa.
- 3. I preceded by an accented a, e, o, or y, and followed by another vowel, is a semivowel with the sound of y in yet (7):  $A-ch\bar{a}$ -ia ( $\ddot{A}-k\ddot{a}'-v\ddot{a}$ ).
- **4.**  $\mathbf{U}^{5}$  in qu, and generally in gu and su before a vowel, has the sound of  $w: qu\bar{\iota}$  (kwė), lin'-gua (lin'-gwä),  $su\bar{a}'$ -sit (swä'-sit).
- 6. DIPHTHONGS.—In diphthongs each vowel retains its own sound:

- 1. **Ei** as in reil, **eu** with the sounds of e and u combined, and oi = oe, occur in a few words: dein, neu'-ter, proin.
- 7. Consonants. Most of the consonants are pronounced nearly as in English, but the following require special notice:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Latin vowels marked with the sign <sup>-</sup> are long in quantity, i. e., in the duration of the sound (16); those not marked are short in quantity; see 16, note 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Or ē like ā in made, ī like ē in me, and ū like oo in moon.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The short vowels can be only imperfectly represented by English equivalents. In theory they have the same sounds as the corresponding long vowels, but occupy only half as much time in utterance.

<sup>4</sup> Observe the difference between the length or quantity of the vowel and the length or quantity of the syllable. Here the rowel u is short, but the syllable sunt is long; see 16.1. In syllables long irrespective of the length of the vowels contained in them, it is often difficult and sometimes absolutely impossible to determine the natural quantity of the vowels; but it is thought advisable to treat vowels as short in all situations where there are not good reasons for believing them to be long.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> This is sometimes called the parasitic u, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant, and as being dependent upon it. See Papillon, p. 50; Peile, p. 383; Corssen, L. pp. 69, 70, and 85.

<sup>6</sup> Combining the sounds of a and i.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> When pronounced as monosyllables in poetry (608, 111.); otherwise as dissyllables; de'-in, pro'-in.

**j** like y in yet:  $j\bar{u}'$ -stum (yoo-stum),  $j\alpha'$ -ect.

s " s " son: sa'-eer, so'-ror, A'-si-a.

t " t " time: ti'-mor, tō'-tus, āc'-ti-ŏ.

▼ " w" we: va'-dum. vī'-eī. vi'-ti-um.¹

Note.—Before s and t, b has the sound of p: urbs, sub'-ter, pronounced urps, sup'-ter.\* Ch has the sound of k: cho'-rus (ko'-rus).

## 8. Syllables.—In dividing words into syllables.

- 1. Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs:  $m\ddot{o}'$ -re, per-su $\ddot{a}'$ -d $\ddot{e}$ ,  $m\ddot{e}n'$ -sae.
- 2. Join to each vowel as many of the consonants which precede it—one or more—as can be conveniently pronounced at the beginning of a word or syllable: <sup>3</sup> pa'-ter, pa'-trēs, ge'-ne-rī, do'-mi-nus, nō'-seit, si'-stis, clau'-stra, mēn'-sa, bel'-lum, tem'-plum, ēmp'-lus. But—
- 3. Compound words must be separated into their component parts, if the first of these parts ends in a consonant: ab'-es, ob-ī'-re.

#### ENGLISH METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.4

- 9. Vowels.—Vowels generally have their long or short English sounds.
- 10. Long Sounds.—Vowels have their long English sounds—**a** as in *fate*, **e** in *mete*, **i** in *pine*, **o** in *note*, **u** in *tube*, **y** in *type*—in the following situations:
  - 1. In final syllables ending in a vowel:

Se, si, ser'-vi, ser'-vo, cor'-nu, mi'-sy.

2. In all syllables, before a vowel or diphthong:

De'-us, de-o'-rum, de'-ac, di-e'-i, ni'-hi-lum.6

<sup>1</sup> There is some uncertainty in regard to the sound of r. Corssen gives it at the beginning of a word the sound of the English r, in all other situations the sound of w.

<sup>2</sup> On Assimilation in Sound in this and similar cases, see p. 17, foot-note 1.

- <sup>3</sup> By some grammarians any combination of consonants which can begin either a Latin or a Greek word is always joined to the following vowel, as o'-mnis, i'-pse. Roby, on the contrary, thinks that the Romans pronounced with each vowel as many of the following consonants as could be readily combined with it.
- 4 Scholars in different countries generally pronounce Latin substantially as they pronounce their own languages. Accordingly in England and in this country the English Method has in general prevailed, though of late the Roman pronunciation has gained flavor in many quarters.
- b These sounds in Latin, as in English, are somewhat modified by the consonants which accompany them. Thus, before r, when final, or followed by another consonant, e, i, and u are searcely distinguishable, while a and o are pronounced as in fair, for. Between qu and dr, or rt, a approaches the sound of o: quartus, as in quarter.
- 6 In these rules no account is taken of the aspirate h: hence the first i in nihilum is treated as a vowel before another vowel; for the same reason, ch, ph, and th are treated as single mutes; thus th in Athos and Otherus.

3. In penultimate' syllables before a single consonant, or before a mute followed by a liquid:

Pa'-ter, pa'-tres, ho-no'-ris, A'-thos, O'-thrys.

4. In unaccented syllables, not final, before a single consonant, or before a mute followed by a liquid:

Do-lo'-ris, cor'-po-ri, con'-su-lis, a-grie'-o-la.

- A unaccented has the sound of a final in America: men'-sa, a-cu'-tus, a-ma'-mus.<sup>2</sup>
- 2) **I** and **y** unaccented, in any syllable except the first and last, generally have the short sound: nob'-i-lis (nob'-e-lis), Am'-y-cus (Am'-e-cus).
- 3) **I** preceded by an accented a, c, o, or y, and followed by another vowel, is a semivowel<sup>3</sup> with the sound of y in yet: A-cha'-ia (A-ka'-ya). Pom-pe'-ius (Pom-pe'-yus), La-to'-ia (La-to'-ya), Har-py'-ia (Har-py'-ya).
- 4) **U** has the short sound before bl, and the other vowels before gl and tl: Pub·lic'-o-la, Ag-la'-o-phon, At'-las.
- 5) U<sup>4</sup> in qu, and generally in gu and su before a vowel, has the sound of w: qui (kwi), qua; lin'-qua (lin'-gwa), lin'-qui; sua'-de-o (swa'-de-o).
- 6) Compound Words.—When the first part of a compound is entire and ends in a consonant, any vowel before such consonant has generally the *short* sound: a in ab'-cs, e in rcd'-it, i in in'-it, o in ob'-it, prod'-est. But those final syllables which, as exceptions, have the *long* sound before a consonant (11, 1), retain that sound in compounds: post'-quam, hos'-ce. E'-ti-am and quo'-ni-am are generally pronounced as simple words.
- 11. SHORT SOUNDS.—Vowels have their short English sounds—a as in fat, e in met, i in pin, o in not, u in tub, y in myth—in the following situations:
  - 1. In final syllables ending in a consonant:

A'-mat, a'-met, rex'-it, sol, con'-sul, Te'-thys; except post, es final, and os final in plural cases: res, di'-es, hos, a'gros.

2. In all syllables before x, or any two consonants except a mute followed by a liquid (10, 3 and 4):

Rex'-it, bel'-lum, rex-e'-runt, bel-lo'-rum.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Penultimate, the last syllable but one.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Some give the same sound to a final in monosyllables: da, qua; while others give it the long sound according to 10, 1.

Sometimes written j.

<sup>4</sup> This is sometimes called the parasitic n, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant and as being dependent upon it. See Papillon, p. 50; Peile, p 883; Corssen, I., pp. 69, 70, and 85.

Etiam is compounded of et and jam; quoniam, of quom = quum, cum, and jam.

3. In all accented syllables, not penultimate, before one or more consonants:

Dom'-i-nus, pat'-ri-bus. But-

- 1) **A**, **e**, or **o** before a single consonant (or a mute and a liquid), followed by *e*, *i*, or *y* before another vowel, has the long sound: *a'-ci-es*, *a'-cri-a*, *me'-re-o*, *do'-ce-o*.
- U, in any syllable not final, before a single consonant or a mute and a liquid, except bl, has the long sound: Pu'-ni-cus, sa-lu'-bri-tas.
  - 3) Compounds; see 10, 6).
- 12. DIPHTHONGS.—Diphthongs are pronounced as follows:

Ae like e: Cae'-sar, Daed'-a-lus.1 | Au as in author: au'-rum.

Oe like e: Oe'-ta, Oed'-i-pus.\(^1\) Eu as in neuter: neu-ter.

- 1. Ei and oi are seldom diphthongs, but when so used they are pronounced as in height, coin; hei, proin; see Synaeresis, 608, III.
  - 2. Ui, as a diphthong with the long sound of i, occurs in cui, hui, huic.
- 13. Consonants.—The consonants are pronounced in general as in English. Thus—
- I. C and G are soft (like s and j) before e, i, y, ae, and oe, and hard in other situations: ee'-do (se'-do), ei'-ris, Cy'-rus, cae'-do, coe'-pi, a'-ye (a'-je), a'-yi; ca'-do (ka'-do), co'-yo, cum, Ga'-des. But
  - C has the sound of sh—
- 1) Before *i* preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel; so'-ci-us (so'-she-us);
- Before en and yo preceded by an accented syllable: ca-du'-ce-us (ca-du'-she-us), Sic'-y-on (Sish'-y-on).
  - 2. Ch is hard like k: cho'-rus (ko'-rus), Chi'-os (Ki'-os).
  - 3. G has the soft sound before g soft: ag'-ger.
- II. S, T, and X are generally pronounced as in the English words son, time, expect: su'-cer, ti'-mor, rer'-i (rek'-si). But—
- 1. S, T, and A are aspirated before i preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel—s and t taking the sound of sh, and x that of ksh: Al'-si-um (Al'-she-um), ar'-ti-um (ar' she-um), anx'-t-us (ank'-she-us). But
- T loses the aspirate—(1) after s, t, or x: O:'-ti-a, At'-ti-us, mix'-ti-o; (2) in old infinitives in ter: flee'-ti-er; (3) generally in proper names in tion (tyon): Phi-lis'-ti-on, Am-phic'-ty-on.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The diphthong has the *long sound* in *Cae'-sar* and *Oe'-ta*, according to **10**, 3, but the *short sound* in *Daed'-a-lus* (Ded'-a-lus) and *Oed'-i-pus* (Ed'-i-pus), according to **11**, 3, as e would be thus pronounced in the same situations.

- 2. S is pronounced like z-
- 1) At the end of a word, after e, ae, au, b, m, n, r: spes, pracs, laus, urbs, hi'-ems, mons, pars;
- 2) In a few words after the analogy of the corresponding English words: Cae'-sar, Caesar; cau'-sa, cause; mu'-sa, muse; mi'-ser, miser, miser, miser able, etc.
  - 3. X at the beginning of a word has the sound of z: Xan'-thus.

# 14. Syllables.—In dividing words into syllables—

- 1. Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs: mo'-re, per-suu'-de, men'-sae.
- 2. Distribute the consonants so as to give the proper sound to each vowel and diphthong, as determined by previous rules (10-12): pa'-ter, pa'-tres, a-gro'-rum, au-di'-vi; gen'-c-ri, dom'-i-nus; bel'-lum, pat'-ri-bus; emp'-tus, tem'-plum; rex'-i, anx'-i-us; post'-quam, hos'-cc.\frac{1}{2}

#### CONTINENTAL METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.2

- 15. For the Continental Method, as adopted in this country, take—
  - 1. The Roman pronunciation of the vowels and diphthongs; see 5 and 6.
  - 2. The English pronunciation of the consonants; 3 see 13.
  - 3. The Roman division of words into syllables; see 8.

## QUANTITY.

- 16. Syllables are in quantity or length either long, short, or common.<sup>4</sup>
  - I. Long.—A syllable is long in quantity—
  - 1. If it contains a diphthong or a long vowel: haec, res.

<sup>1</sup> Observe that compound words are separated into their component parts, if the first of these parts ends in a consonant (10, 4, 6), as post'-quam; that in other cases, after a vowel with a long sound, consonants are joined to the following syllable, as in the first four examples, pa'-ter, etc., and that, after a vowel with a short sound, a single consonant is joined to such vowel, as in gen'-e-ri and don'-i-nus; that two consonants are separated, as in hell'-lum, etc.; that of three or four consonants, the last, or, if a mute and a liquid, the last two, are joined to the following syllable, as in emp'-lus, etc., but that the double consonant x is joined to the preceding yowel, as in rex'-i, unx'-l-us.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Strictly speaking, there is no Continental Method, as every nation on the Continent of Europe has its own method.

<sup>3</sup> Though the pronunciation of the consonants varies somewhat in different institutions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Common-i e., sometimes long and sometimes short. For rules of quantity sec Prosody. Two or three leading facts are here given for the convenience of the learner.

<sup>5</sup> See note 3 below.

- 2. If its vowel is followed by j, x, or z, or any two consonants, except a mute and a liquid: dux,  $r\bar{e}x$ , sunt.
- II. Short.—A syllable is short, if its vowel is followed by another vowel, by a diphthong, or by the aspirate h: di'-ēs, vi'-ae, ni'-hil.
- III. Common.—A syllable is common, if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid: a'-grī.

Note 1.—Vowels are also in quantity either long, short, or common; but the quantity of the vowel does not always coincide with the quantity of the syllable.<sup>3</sup>

Note 2.—Vowels are long before ns and nf, generally also before gn and  $j: c\bar{v}n'-su'$ ,  $in-f\bar{e}'-l\bar{\iota}x$ ,  $r\bar{e}g'-num$ ,  $h\bar{u}'-jus$ ,

Note 3.—The signs  $\bar{\phantom{a}}$ , \* are used to mark the quantity of vowels, the first denoting that the vowel over which it is placed is *long*, the second that it is *common*, i. e., sometimes long and sometimes short:  $a-m\tilde{a}'-b\tilde{b}$ . All vowels not marked are to be treated as short.

Note 4.—Diphthongs are always long.

#### ACCENTUATION.

17. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first:  $m\bar{e}n'$ -sa.

Note.—Monosyllables are also accented.

18. Words of more than two syllables are accented on

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> That is, in the order here given, with the mute before the liquid; if the liquid precedes, the syllable is long

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Observe that the vowel in such syllables may be either long or short. Thus it is long in  $r\bar{e}x$ , but short in d cx and sunt,

<sup>3</sup> Thus in long syllables the vowels may be either long or short, as in rex, dux, sunt; see foot-note 4, p. 4. But in short syllables the vowels are also short.

<sup>4</sup> See Schmitz, pp. 3-33, also p. 56; Kühner, L, p. 137; also H. A. J. Munro's pamphlet on the Pronunciation of Latin, pp. 24-26.

See p. 4, foot-note 4. In many works short vowels are marked with the sign \*: régis.

With the ancient Romans accent probably related not to force or stress of roice, as with us, but to musical pitch. It was also distinguished as acute or circumflex. Thus all monosyllables and all words in which the vowel of the penult is long and the final syllable short were said to have the circumflex accent, while all other accented words were said to have the acute. The distinction is of no practical value in pronunciation. On the general subject of Accent, see Ellis, pp. 8-10; Roby, L. pp. 98-100; Kühner, L. p. 148; Corssen, H., pp. 806-808.

the *Penult*, if that is long in quantity, otherwise on the Antepenult: ho- $n\bar{o}'$ -ris,  $c\bar{o}n'$ -su-lis.

- 1. Certain words which have lost a syllable retain the accent of the full form. Thus—
- Genitives in \(\tilde{\ta}\) for \(\tilde{\tau}\) and vocatives in \(\tilde{\ta}\) for \(\tilde{\ta}\): \(\tilde{\tau}\)-\(\tau\). for \(\tilde{\tau}\)-\(\tau\).
   Mer-cu'-r\(\tilde{\tau}\) for \(Mer\)-cu'-ri-e.

Note 1.—Prepositions standing before their cases are treated as Proclitics—i. e., are so closely united in pronunciation with the following word as to have no accent of their own:  $sub\ j\bar{n}'-di\text{-}ce$ ,  $in\text{-}ter\ r\bar{e}'-g\bar{e}s$ .

Note 2.—Penults common in quantity take the accent when used as long.

- 2. Compounds are accented like simple words; but-
- 1) The enclitics, qne, ve, ne, ee, net, etc., throw back their accents upon the last syllable of the word to which they are appended: ho'-mi-ne'-que,  $m\bar{e}n-sn'-que$ , 5 e-qo'-met.
- Fació, compounded with other words than prepositions, retains its own accent: ca-le-fa'-cit.<sup>4</sup>
- 3. A secondary or subordinate accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the primary accent—on the second, if that is the first syllable of the word, or is long in quantity, otherwise on the third: mo'-nu-ē'-runt, mo'-nu-e-rā'-mus, in-stau'-rā-vē'-runt.

Note.—A few long words admit two secondary or subordinate accents:  $ho' \cdot n\bar{o} \cdot rif' - i\cdot cen-tis' \cdot si \cdot mus.^6$ 

#### PHONETIC CHANGES.

19. Latin words have undergone important changes in accordance with phonetic laws.

- <sup>1</sup> The penult is the last syllable but one; the antepenult, the last but two.
- <sup>2</sup> Thus the quantity of the *syllable*, not of the *rovel*, determines the place of the accent: *regen'-tis*, accented on the penult, because that *syllable* is *long*, though its *rovel* is *short*; see 16, 1, 2.
- <sup>3</sup> According to Priscian, certain contracted words, as res-trās' for res-trās'-tis, or with the circumflex accent, res-trās for res-trā-tis, Sum-nis for Sam-ni-tis, also retained the accent of the full form; but it is not deemed advisable to multiply exceptions in a school grammar. See Priscian, IV., 22.
  - 4 By the English method, hom'-i-ne'-que, cal'-e-fa'-cit.
- $^6$  A word accented upon the penult thus loses its own accent before an enclitic:  $m^5n'\!-\!sa,\,m\bar{\epsilon}n\!-\!sa'\!-\!que,$
- 6 By the English method, mon'-u-ê'-runt, mon'-u-e-rû'-mus, hon'-ō-rif'-i-cen-tis'-si-mus.
- $^7$  In the history of the ancient languages of the Indo-European family, to which the Latin, Greek, and English alike belong, the general direction of phonetic change has been from the extremes of the alphabetic scale—i, e., from the open  $\alpha$  at one extreme and

#### I. CHANGES IN VOWELS.

#### 20. Vowels are often lengthened:

1. In compensation for the dropping of consonants:

Servoms, servõs, slaves; rēgems, rēgēs, kings; posno, pono, I place; magior, māior or mājor, greater.

2. In the inflection of verbs:

Legő, lègí, <sup>3</sup> I read, I have read; edő, edő, I eat, I have eaten; fugiő, fügi, I flee, I have fled.

Note 1.—Sometimes vowels are changed, as well as lengthened:  $ag\tilde{\phi}$ ,  $\tilde{e}g\tilde{\imath}$ , I drive, I have driven;  $faci\tilde{\phi}$ ,  $f\tilde{e}c\tilde{\imath}$ , I make, I have made; see 255, II.

Note 2.—Different forms from the same stem or root sometimes show a variable vowel: ducis, dūcis, of a leader, you lead; regis, rēgis, you rule, of a king; tegō, toga, I cover, a covering, the toga.<sup>3</sup> See also 22, 1.

#### 21. Vowels are often shortened: 4

1. Regularly in final syllables before m and t:

Erām, eram, 5 I was; moneām, moneam, let me advise; audiām, audiam, let me hear; erāt, erat, he was; amāt, amat, he loves; monēt, monet, he advises; sīt, sīt, may he be; audīt, audīt, he hears.

- 2. Often in other final syllables. Thus-
- 1) Final  $\bar{\mathbf{a}}^{\,6}$  is shortened (1) in the Plural of Neuter nouns and adjectives, and (2) in the Nominative and Vocative Singular of Feminine nouns and adjectives of the first declension:

from the close mutes at the other—toward the middle of the scale, where the vowels and consonants meet; see 3. Accordingly, in Latin words we shall not unfrequently find e or o, or even i or u, occupying the place of a primitive a; and we shall sometimes find a liquid or a fricative occupying the place of a primitive mute. See Whitney, p. 68; Papillon, p. 49; Pelle, pp. 199 and 312.

<sup>1</sup> O short in *serroms* is lengthened in *serros* to compensate for the loss of m, and a short in magior is lengthened in major, major, to compensate for the loss of y.

<sup>2</sup> The short vowel of the present tense is here lengthened in the perfect; see 255, II.

- <sup>3</sup> In ducis, dūcis, and in regis, rēgis, the variation is simply in the quantity of the vowel, but in tepô, togu, the vowel itself is changed, appearing as e in tepô and o in togus. Sometimes a single vowel appears in one form while a diphthong appears in another: fides, faith, foedus, treaty.
  - 4 See Corssen, II., p. 436 seq.

<sup>5</sup> In all these examples, the form with the long vowel in the final syllable is the earlier form, and, in general, is found only in inscriptions and in the early poets, as Plautus, Ennius, etc.; while the form with the short vowel belongs to the classical period.

6 Corssen regards numerals in -giutā, as trā-gintā, quadrā-gintā, etc., as Plural Neuters, and ā as the original ending. He recognizes also the Neuter Plural of the pronoun with ā in ant-eā, post-eā, inter-eā, practer-eā, ante-hā-c, practer-hā-c. See Corssen, H., p. 455 — For a different explanation, see 304, IV., N. 2.

<sup>7</sup> In masculine nouns of the first declension a final was short in the Nominative even in early Latin; scriba, a scribe. But most stems in a weakened a to a, and thus passed into the second declension.

Templā, templa, temples; generā, genera, kinds; graviā, gravia, heavy; mūsā, mūsa, muse; bonā, bona, good.

2) In ar, or, and al final, a and o are regularly shortened:

Regār, regar, let me be ruled; audiār, audiar, let me be heard; audiōr, audior, l am heard; honor, honor; ōrātōr, ōrātor, orator; moneōr, moneor, I am advised; animāle, animāl (27), animal, an animal.

3) Final ē, ī, and ō are sometimes shortened:

 $Ben\bar{e}$ ,  $ben\bar{e}$ , well;  $n\bar{u}b\bar{e}$ ,  $n\bar{u}b\bar{e}$ , with a cloud;  $nis\bar{i}$ ,  $nis\bar{i}$ , unless;  $ib\bar{i}$ ,  $ib\bar{i}$ , there;  $le\bar{o}$ ,  $le\bar{o}$ , a lion;  $\epsilon g\bar{o}$ ,  $\epsilon go$ , I.

22. Vowels are often weakened, i. e., are often changed to weaker vowels.<sup>1</sup>

The order of the vowels, from the strongest to the weakest, is as follows:

a, o, u, e, 
$$i$$
.<sup>2</sup>
Thus a is changed to  $o$  . . .  $u$  . . . e . .  $i$ .

o to  $u$  . . . e . .  $i$ .

u to  $e$  . .  $i$ .

e to  $i$ .

Note.—The change from a through o to u is usually arrested at u, while a is often changed directly through e to i without passing through o or u.<sup>3</sup>

1. Vowels are often weakened in consequence of the lengthening of words by inflection, composition, etc.:

Carmen, 4 carmenis, carminis, a song, of a song; frūctus, frūctubus, frūctibus, fruit, with fruits; faciō, cōn-faciō, cōn-ficiō, I make, I accomplish; factus, īn-factus, īn-fectus, made, not made; damnō, con-damnō, condemnō, I doom, I condemn; teneō, con-teneō, con-tineō, I hold, I contain; cadō, ca-cad-ī, cc-cid-ī, I fall, I have fallen; tuba, tuba-cen, tubi-cen, a flute, a flute-player.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> That is, the open a is changed either to the close u through the medial o, as seen on the right side of the following vowel-triangle, or to the close i through the medial c, as seen on the left side:

Open vowel								a	
Medial rowels							e		0
Close vowels						i			

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The syllable men was originally man. The original a has been weakened to e in carmen and to i in carmin-is.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Corssen, H., pp. 1-436. The process by which vowels are shortened (21), weakened, or dropped (27), and by which diphthongs are weakened to single vowels, and consonants assimilated, or otherwise changed, is generally known as Phonene Decay. It may result from indistinct articulation, or from an effort to secure ease of utterance. For a difficult sound, or combination of sounds, it substitutes one which requires less physical effort.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> But u,  $\epsilon$ , and i differ so slightly in strength that they appear at times to be simply interchanged.

2. Vowels are often weakened without any such special cause: 1

Puerom, puerum, a boy; fīlios, fīlius, son; sont, sunt, they are; regont, regunt, they rule; decumus, decimus, tenth; māxumus, māximus, greatest; lēgitumus, lēgitimus, lawful; aestumō, aestimō, I estimate.

- **23.** Two successive vowels are sometimes contracted:
- 1. Into a рігитному: mēnsā-ī, mēnsai, mēnsae, tables; see 4.
- 2. More frequently into a long vowel. In this case the second vowel generally disappears. Thus e and i often disappear after a, c, and o:

Amāverat, amaerat, amārat, he had loved; amāvisse, amaisse, amāsse, to have loved; Jēvērunt, Jeērunt, Herunt, they have wept; nōvisse, noisse, nōsse, to know; serroī, servō, tor the slave.

Note.—The proper diphthongs of early Latin were changed or weak-ened as follows:

- ai 2 generally into ae; sometimes into ē or ī.
- oi generally into oe; sometimes into ū or ī.
- ei generally into ī; sometimes unchanged.
- au sometimes into ō or ū; generally unchanged.
- eu generally into ū; rarely unchanged.
- ou regularly into ū.

Aidīlis, aedīlis, an aedīle; Rōmai, Rōmae, at Rome; amaimus, amēmus, let us love; in-caedīt, in-cīdīt, he cuts into; mēnsars, mēnsīs, with tables; foidus, foedus, treaty; coira, coera, cūra, care; loidos, loedus, lūdus,³ play; puerois, pnerīs, for the boys; ceivis, cīvis, eitizen; lautus, lōtus,⁴ elegant; ex-claudō, ex-clūdō, I shut out; doucit, dūcit, he leads; jous, jūs,⁵ right.

24. Vowels are sometimes changed through the influence of the consonants which follow them. Thus—

<sup>1</sup> That is, by the ordinary process of phonetic decay, a process which in many words has changed an original a of the parent language to e or o in Latin, and in some words to i or u. Corssen cites upward of four hundred Latin words in which he supposes a primitive a to have been weakened to o, e, or i. Even the long vowels are sometimes weakened. Compare the following forms, in which the Sanskrit retains the vowel of the parent language.

Sanskrit. sapta,	Latin. septem,	English, seren.	SANSKRIT.	Latin. pedēs,	English. feet.
nava,	novem,	nine.	navas,	novus,	new.
daca,	decem,	ten.	vāk,	võx,	voice.
mātā,	mäter,	mother.	vācas,	võcis,	of a roice.
sadas,	sēdēs,	scat.	vācam,	võcem,	roice.

- <sup>2</sup> The forms ai, oi, ei, au, eu, and ou are all found in early Latin, as in inscriptions; but in the classical period ai had been already changed to ae, oi to oe, and ou to  $\vec{u}$ .
- <sup>3</sup> Loidos, the earliest form, became loed us by weakening oi to oe, and o to u (22, 2); then loed us became  $l\bar{u}dus$  by weakening oe to  $\bar{u}$ .
  - 4 Lautus, the earlier, is also the more approved form.
- As eu and ou were both weakened to  $\vec{u}$ , it is not easy to give trustworthy examples of the weakening of eu to  $\vec{u}$ .

1. **E** is the favorite vowel before r, x, or two or more consonants:

Cinisis, cineris 1 (31), of ashes; jūdix, jūdex, judge; mīlitis, mīlets, mīles, of a soldier, a soldier.

Note.—E final is also a favorite vowel: serve, serve, O slave; monēris, monēri, monēre, you are advised; mari, mare, sea.

2. **I** is the favorite vowel before n, s, and t:

Homonis, hominis, of a man; pulver or pulvis, dust; salūtes, salūtis, ot safety; rērotās, rēritās, truth; genetor, genitor, father.

3. **U** is the favorite vowel before l and m, especially when followed by another consonant:

Epistola, epistula, letter; volt, vult, he wishes; facilitās, facilitās (27), facultās, faculty; monēmentum, monumentum, monument; colomna, columna, column.

- 25. Assimilation.—A vowel is often assimilated by a following vowel. Thus—
- A vowel before another vowel is often partially <sup>5</sup> assimilated. I is thus changed to e before a, o, or u: ia, eı, this; iδ, eδ, I go; iunt, eunt, they go; iudem, eadem, same; dīvus, dīus (36, 4), deus, god.

Note.—When the first vowel is thus adapted to the second, the assimilation is said to be regressive, but sometimes the second vowel is adapted to the first, and then the assimilation is progressive. Thus the ending  $i\bar{a}$  (21, 2), instead of becoming ea as above, may become  $i\bar{e}:l\bar{u}xuri\bar{a}$  (perhaps for  $l\bar{u}xuri\bar{a}s$ ),  $l\bar{u}xuri\bar{e}s$ , luxury;  $m\bar{a}teri\bar{a}$ ,  $m\bar{a}teri\bar{e}s$ , and the interval of the second vowel is adapted to the first, and the second vowel is adapted to the first, and then the assimilation is progressive.

- 2. A vowel may be completely assimilated by the vowel of the following syllable from which it is separated by a consonant. Thus—
- E is assimilated to i: mehi, mihi, for me; tebi, tibi, for you; sebi, sibi, for himself; nehil, nihil, nothing.
- 2) l' is assimilated to i: consulium, consilium, counsel; exsulium, exsilium, exile.
- 3) Other vowels are sometimes assimilated; o to e: bonē, benē, bene (21, 2), well; e to u: tegurium, tugurium, hut; ē to ō: sēcors, sōcors, stupid.
  - 26. Dissimilation.—A vowel is often changed by dissimilation,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cinisis, from cinis, becomes cineris by changing s to r between two vowels, making ciniris (31, 1), and by then changing i to e before r.

Observe that the vowel which appears as i in mīlitis before t, takes the form of s in mīlets before ts, as also in mīles for mīlets.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Monēris becomes monēre by dropping s (36, 5), and changing final i to e.

<sup>4</sup> Observe that the form in r has e, while that in s has i.

<sup>,&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> That is, it is made like it, adapted to it, but does not become identical with lt. Thus i before a may be changed to e, but not to a.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Thus from nouns in  $i\bar{a}$  of the first declension were developed nearly all nouns in  $i\bar{e}s$  of the first declension were developed nearly all nouns in  $i\bar{e}s$ 

i. e., by being made unlike the following vowel: ii, ei, these; iis, eis, for these.<sup>1</sup>

Note,—The combination ii is sometimes avoided by the use of e in place of the second i: pietās instead of piitās, piety; societās, society; varietās, variety.

27. Vowels are often dropped in the middle or at the end of words, sometimes even at the beginning:

Tempulum, templum, temple; vinculum, vinclum, band; benigenus, benignus, benignant; amab, amb, 1 love; temploa, templa, temples; animāle, animal, an animal; sī-ne, sīn, if not; dīce, dīc, say; esum, sum, 1 am; esumus, sumus, we are.

Note.—After a word ending in a vowel or in m, est, he is, often drops the initial e, and becomes attached to the preceding word:  $r\bar{e}s$  optumus est,  $r\bar{e}s$  optumus est, optumumst, it is best;  $dom\bar{t}$  est,  $dom\bar{t}st$ , he is at home. In the same way est thou art, is sometimes attached to the preceding word, when that word ends in a vowel;  $hom\bar{b}$  est,  $hom\bar{b}s$ , you are a man. For the loss of a final s from the preceding word, see 36, 5, 1, note.

#### II. Interchange of Vowels and Consonants.

**28.** The vowel i and the consonant i—also written j—are sometimes interchanged :

Altior, higher; magior, māior or mājor, greater; ipstus, of himself; tius or tjus, of him.

**29.** The vowel u and the consonant u—generally written v—are often interchanged:

Col-uī,<sup>5</sup> I have cultivated; rocā-rī,<sup>5</sup> I have called; nārīta, nāvīta, nauta, sailor; volctus, rolūtus, rolled; lactus, lantus or lōtus,<sup>6</sup> washed; mortus, motus, mōtus,<sup>6</sup> moved.

Note.—The Liquids and Nasals are sometimes so fully vocalized as to develop vowels

- 1 The combination uu was also avoided in early Latin either by retaining the second vowel in the form of φ, instead of weakening it to u, or by changing qu to ε: equos, afterward equus, a horse; quom, or eum, afterward, though not properly in classical times, quum, when. Observe that when φ becomes u, a preceding qu becomes c: quom, cum; loopiōtūs, lovātus, having spoken. See Brambach, p. 5.
  - <sup>2</sup> See 16, note 2.
- <sup>3</sup> Observe that after e is dropped, \(\tilde{a}\) is shortened in the final syllable: anim\(\tilde{a}\), anim\(\tilde{a}\), see 21, 2.
- 4 In the comparative ending ior, as seen in altior, i is a vowel, but in the same ending, as seen in m ior, nuclor, it is a consonant, and in this grammar is generally written i. I thus becomes j between two vowels; see 2, 4, foot-note. So in the genitive ending im, i is sometimes a vowel and sometimes a consonant.
- <sup>5</sup> The ending which appears as  $u\bar{\imath}$  in col- $u\bar{\imath}$  becomes  $r\bar{\imath}$  in  $roc\bar{\imath}$ - $r\bar{\imath}$ . U becomes v between two vowels,
- 6 If a vowel precedes the r thus changed to u, a contraction takes place—a-u becoming au, rarely \(\delta\), o-u becoming \(\delta\), and u-u becoming \(\vec{u}\): lartus, lautus, l\(\delta\)tus, washed moetus, moutus, m\(\delta\)tus, inoved; justus, intus, i\(\vec{u}\)'us, assisted.

before them. Thus agr (for agrus) becomes ager, field; acr (for acris), acer, sharp; regm, regem, king; sm (for esm), sum, I am; smt (for esnt), sunt, they are.

#### III. CHANGES IN CONSONANTS.

30. A Guttural—c, g, q (qu), or h —before s generally unites with it and forms x:

Ducs, dux, leader; pācs, pāx, peace; rēgs, rēcs, rēx, king; lēgs, lēcs, lēx, law; coqusī, cocsī, s coxī, 1 have cooked; trahsī, tracsī, traxī, 1 have drawn.

Note 1 - V for gv in  $v\bar{v}e\check{a}$ , I live, is treated as a guttural:  $v\bar{v}v\bar{s}\bar{i}$ ,  $v\bar{v}e\bar{s}\bar{i}$ ,  $v\bar{v}x\bar{i}$ , 1 have lived.

Note 2.—For the Dropping of the Guttural before s, see 36. 3.

## 31. S is often changed to r:

- 1. Generally so when it stands between two vowels: floses, flores, flowers; jūsa, jūra, rights; mēnsāsum, mēnsārum, of tables; agrōsum, agrōrum, of fields; esam, eram, I was; esāmus, erāmus, we were; fuēsunt, fuērunt, they have been; fuēsit, fuērit, he will have been; amāset, amāret, he would love; regisis, regeris, ou are ruled.
- 2. Often at the end of words: honos, honor, honor; robos, robus, robur, strength; puesus, puerus, puer, boy; regituse, regiture, regiture, is is ruled.
- 3. Sometimes before m, n, or v: casmen, carmen, song; vet.snus, veternus, old; hodiesnus, hodiernus, of this day; Minesva, Minerva, the goddess Minerva.

## 32. **D** is sometimes changed to 1:

Dacrima, lacrima, tear; dingua, lingua, language; odêre, olêre, to emit an odor.

Note 1.—D final sometimes stands in the place of an original t: id, this; istud, that; illud, that; quod, quid, what, which?

Note 2.—Dr at the beginning of a word (1) sometimes becomes b: dvellum, bellum, war; dvis, bis, twice; (2) sometimes drops d: dviginii, viginii, twenty; and (3) sometimes drops v: dvis, dis, inseparable particle (308), in two, asunder.

# 33. Partial Assimilation.—A consonant is often partially <sup>10</sup> assimilated by a following consonant. Thus—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This occurs between consonants and at the end of words after consonants.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The ending us or is is dropped (36, 5, 2), note), and r final vocalized to er; m becomes em in regem, and um in sum; n becomes un in sunt.

<sup>3</sup> Sometimes gu: exstingusi, exstincsi, exstinxi, I have extinguished.

<sup>4</sup> For an original gh.

<sup>5</sup> The process seems to be that the guttural before s first becomes c, and then unites with s and forms x: thus in coqust, qu becomes c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Observe that i before s becomes e before r; see 24.

 $<sup>^{7}</sup>$  Here s was probably changed to r before the final vowel was dropped.

<sup>8</sup> Literally, he rules himself.

<sup>9</sup> For it, istut, etc. D stands for t also in the old Ablative in d: pracdid for pracdid, afterward pracedid, with booty; magistrātād for magistrātāt, magistrātā, from the magistracy.

<sup>10</sup> That is, it is adapted or accommodated to it, but does not become the same letter.

1. Before the surd s or t, a sonant b or g is generally changed to its corresponding surd,  $p^1$  or c:

Serībsī, serīpsī, I have written; scrībtus, scrīptus, written; rēgsī, rēcsī, rēxī (30), I have ruled; rēgtus, rectus, ruled. See also 35, 3, note.

Note.—Qu, h for gh, and v for gr are also changed to c before s and t: coqusit, coxit, eh has cooked; coquius, coxits, eoked; transit, traxit, t

2. Before a sonant 1, m, n, or r, a surd c, p, or t is generally changed to its corresponding sonant, g, b, or d:

Neclegő, neglegő, I neglect; sec-mentum, s gmentum, a entting; populicus, piplicus, pūblicus, public; quatra, quadra, a square; quatrāgintā, quadrāgintā, torty.

3. Before a Labial p or b, n is generally changed to m:8

Inp.rő, imperő, 1 command; inperator, imperator, commander; inbillis, imbellis, unwarlike.

Note,—Before n, a Labial p or b is changed to m in a few words: sopnus, somnus, sleep; Sabnium, Samnium, the country of the Samnites.

- 4. M is changed to n-
- 1) Regularly before a Dental Mute:

Eumdem, eundem, the same; eorumdem, eorumdem, of the same; quemdam, quendam, a certain one; tamtus, tantus, so great; quamtus, quantus, how great, as great.

2) Often before a Guttural Mute:

Hum-ce, hunc, this; num-ce, nunc, onow; prim-ceps, princeps, first; num-quam or nunquam, onever; quamquam or quanquam, although.

3 For trughsit; h is dropped, and g assimilated to c.

5 From populus, the people.

7 From quattuor, four.

<sup>1</sup> But b is generally retained (1) before s in nouns in bs: urbs, not urps, city, and in abs, from; and (2) before s and t in ob, on account of, and sub, under, in compounds and derivatives; obs rvins, observant; obstäsus, obtuse; subscribe, I subscribe; subscribe; subscribe; subscribe; subscribe; subscribe; nuder. In these cases, however, b takes the sound of p, so that assimilation takes place in pronunciation, though not in uriting. It is probable also that in some other consonants assimilation was observed even when omitted in writing; inprimis and imprimis, both pronounced imprimis. See Roby, I., p. lvii.; Munro, p. 10.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Qu, also written qv, is not a syllable; nor is u or v in this combination either a vowel or a consonant, but simply a parasitic sound developed by q, which is never found without it.

<sup>4</sup> For grigrsit; the first g and the second v are dropped; vigsit, vicsit, vixit.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> P is changed to b, and o is weakened to u; see 22.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> That is, the dental n becomes the labial m,

<sup>9 &</sup>quot;Or" placed between two forms denotes that both are in good use: numquam or numquam. In other cases the last is the only approved form: nume, princeps.

Note 1.—Before the ending -que, m is generally retained: 1 quīcumque, whoever; quemque, every one; namque, for indeed.

Note 2.—Quom-iam or quom-jam becomes quoniam, since.

34. A consonant is often completely assimilated by a following consonant. Thus—

## 1. T or d is often assimilated before n or s:

Petna, penna, feather; mercēdnārius, mercēnnārius, mercenary; concutsit, concussit, he has shaken.

Note.—M before s is sometimes assimilated, and sometimes develops p: premsit, pressit, he has pressed;  $s\bar{u}msit$ ,  $s\bar{u}mpsit$ , he has taken.

#### 2. D, n, or r is often assimilated before 1:

Sedula, sedla (27), sella, seat; ūnulus, ūnlus (27), ūllus, any; puerula, puerla, puella, girl.

#### 3. B, g, or n is often assimilated before m:

Sub-moveŏ or sum-moveŏ, I remove; supmus, summus, highest; flagma, flamma, flame; inmotus or immotus, unmoved.

Note.—For Assimilation in Prepositions in Composition, see 344, 5.

- 35. Dissimilation.—The meeting of consonants too closely related and the recurrence of the same consonant in successive syllables are sometimes avoided by changing one of the consonants. Thus—
  - 1. Caeluleus becomes caeruleus, azure; medī-diēs, merīdiēs, midday.
- 2. Certain suffixes of derivation have two forms, one with r to be used after l, and one with l to be used after  $r:^2$   $\bar{a}ris$ ,  $\bar{a}lis$ ; burum, brum,  $^3$  bulum;  $^3$  curum, crum, culum:

Populāris, 1 popular; rēgālis, 1 kingly; dēlūbrum, shrine; tribulum, threshing-sledge; sepulerum, sepulehre; periculum, peril.

- 3. A Dental Mute—d or t—may unite with a following t in two ways:
- 1) Dt or tt may become st:5

Edt, ēst, he eats; rödtrum, röstrum, a beak; equettris, equestris, equestrian.

2) Dt or tt may become ss or s:8

Fodtus, fössus, dug; vidtus, vīsus, seen; plaudtus, plausus, praised; mettus, messus, reaped; verttus, versus, turned.

<sup>1</sup> But probably with the sound of n; see p. 17, foot-note 1.

- $^2$  This distinction is, however, not always observed. The form with l, probably weakened from that with r, became the favorite form, and was generally used if l did not precede.
- <sup>3</sup> From burum are formed (1) brum by dropping u, and (2) bulum by weakening r into l. In the same way crum and culum are formed from curum.
- <sup>4</sup> In popularis,  $\tilde{a}ris$  is used because l precedes; but in  $r\tilde{e}g\tilde{a}lis$ ,  $\tilde{a}lis$  is used because r precedes. When neither l nor r precedes, the weakened form  $\tilde{a}lis$  is used.
  - <sup>5</sup> Here d or t is changed to s by Dissimilation,
- <sup>6</sup> In regard to the exact process by which dt or tt becomes ss or s, there is a diversity of opinion among philologians. See Papillon, p. 75; Roby, p. 62; Corssen, I., p. 208.

Note.—Lgt may become ls;  $^{1}$  rgt, rs;  $^{1}$  llt, ls;  $^{2}$  and rrt, rs;  $^{2}$  mulgtus, mulsus, milked; spargtus, sparsus, scattered; fallius, falsus, false; rerrtus, rersus, swept.

- 36. Omission.—Consonants are sometimes dropped. Thus—
- Some words which originally began with two consonants have dropped the first:

Clămentum, lămentum, lamentation; gnătus, nătus, born; gnôtus, notus, known; drīginti, viginti, twenty; s'allit, fallit, he deceives.

2. A Dental Mute-d or t-before s is generally dropped:5

Lapids, lapis, stone; actāts, aztās, age; mīlets, mīles, soldier; claudsī, clausī, I have closed.

Note.—D is occasionally dropped before other consonants: hod-ce, hôcē, hôcē, hôcē, this; quod-circā, quōcircā, of for which reason: ad-gnōscō, āgnōscō, 1 recognize.

- 3. A Guttural Mute-c, g, or q (qu)-is generally dropped-
- 1) Between a Liquid and s:

Mulcsit, mulsit, he has appeased; fulgsit, fulsit, it has lightened.

2) Between a Liquid and t:

Fulctus, fultus, propped; sarctus, sartus, repaired.

3) Between a Liquid and m:

Fulgmen, fulmen, lightning; tor-pumentum, torm ntum, engine for hurling missiles.

Note 1.—A Guttural Mute is occasionally dropped in other situations. Thus—

- 1. C before m or n: lūcmen, lūmen, light; lūcna, lūna, moon.
- 2. C between n and d or t: quinctus, quintus, fifth; quincdecim, quindecim, fifteen.
- 3. G before m or r: \* exagmen, eximen (20, 1), a swarm; jugmentum, jāmentum, beast of burden; magrult, mīeu't, he prefers; bregsis, brevis, short.

Note 2.—X is sometimes dropped: sexdecim, sīdecim (20, 1), sixteen; sexnī, sēnī, six each; texula, texla, tēla, a web; axula, axla, āla, wing.

Note 3.—N,  $^9$  r, and s are sometimes dropped: in-guidus,  $\bar{\imath}$   $qn\bar{\jmath}$ tus, unknown; formõnsus, formõsus, beautiful;  $quoti\bar{c}ns$ ,  $^{10}$   $quoti\bar{c}s$ , how often;  $deci\bar{c}ns$ ,  $deci\bar{c}s$ ,  $deci\bar{c}$ 

- 1 T is changed to s, and g is dropped.
- <sup>2</sup> T is changed to s, and one l is dropped in llt, and one r in rrt.
- <sup>3</sup> Compare clāmö, I crv out.
- 4 Seen in i-gnotus, ignotus, unknown,

b Probably first assimilated and then dropped: lapids, lapiss, lapis. But the dental is sometimes assimilated and retained: cēdsī, cēssī, I have yielded: concutsit, concussit, he has shaken.

- 6 O lengthened in compensation; see 20, 1.
- <sup>7</sup> Sertius becomes Söstius, a proper name; sexcentī, sēscentī, six hundred; and mīxtus, mīs'us, mixed, by dropping the mute contained in the double consonant x.
  - <sup>8</sup> G has also been dropped in āiō for agiō, I say; mājor for magior, greater, etc.
- In numerals nt is sometimes dropped; ducentni, duceni, two hundred each; vigent-simus or vicent-simus, viqisimus or vicesimus, twentieth.
  - 10 So in all numeral adverbs in iëns, iës. The approved ending in most numeral

times: mulier-bris, muliebris, womanly; pròrsa, pròsa, prose; isdem, idem, same; jūs-dex, jūdex, judge; audisne, audine, audin, do you hear? visne, vine, vin, do you wish?

# 4. A Semivowel-j or v, also written i or u-is often dropped:

Bi-jugae, biugae, bīgae, ehariot with two horses; quadri-jugae, quadrīgae, ehariot with four horses; con-junctus, cō-junctus, cūnctus, the whole; avjiciō or abiciō, I throw away; dīvitior, diitior, dītior, richer; nevolō, neolō, nolō, I am unwilling; amāverat, amaerat, amārat, he had loved.2

Note.—Separate words are sometimes united after the loss of  $v: s\bar{\imath}\ v\bar{\imath}s, si\bar{\imath}s, si\bar{\imath}s, si\bar{\imath}s$ , if you wish;  $s\bar{\imath}\ vullis, siultis, s\bar{\imath}ultis, if you wish.$ 

#### 5. Final consonants are often dropped. Thus-

#### Final s is often dropped: 3

Monèris, monère (24.1, note), you are advised; illus, illu, ille, that; istus, istu, iste, that of yours; ipsus, ipsu, ipse, self, he; parricidas, parricide; magis or mage, more; sivis, sive, whether, lit., if you wish.

Note.—In the early poets es, thou art, and est, he is, after having dropped the initial e, sometimes become attached to the preceding word, which has lost its final s: veritus ex, veritu's, you feared; t.mpus est, tempust, it is time; virtus est, virtust, it is virtue. See 27, note.

#### 2) A final d or t is often dropped:

Cord, cor, heart; prae lād, praedā, s with booty; intrād, intrā, within; ja-cilumēd, s facillimē, most easily; vēnērunt, vēnēru, vēnēre, they have come; rēxērunt, rēxēre, they have ruled.

Note.—Sometimes both a vowel and a consonant disappear at the end of a word: puerus, puer, boy (51, 2, 4)); deinde or dein, thereupon; nihilum or nihil, nothing.

3) A final n<sup>8</sup> is generally dropped in the Nominative Singular from stems in on:

Leon, leo, lion; praedon, praedo, robber; homon, homo, man.

adverbs is ies, but in those formed from indefinite numerals, as tot, quot, it is iens: totiens, quotiens.

- <sup>1</sup> This is the approved form in verbs compounded of  $jaei^{\check{\sigma}}$  and monosyllable prepositions; but  $abici\check{\delta}$  is pronounced as if written  $abjici\check{\delta}$  or  $ab-iici\check{\delta}$ , i. e., i=ji, pronounced ye by the Roman method. The syllable ab thus remains long.
- <sup>2</sup> Several adverbial forms were produced by the loss of c with the attendant changes: revorsus, reorsus, rūrsus, back; subsvorsum, suscorsum, suorsum, sūrsum, from below, on high.
- 3 In early inscriptions proper names in os, afterward us, occur without the s as often as with it: Röscios, Röscio; Gubinios, Gabinio.
  - <sup>4</sup> This form actually occurs in early Latin.
- <sup>5</sup> The Ablative singular ended anciently in d, originally t. Many prepositions and adverbs in  $\tilde{d}$  and  $\tilde{e}$  are ablatives in origin, and accordingly ended in d.
  - 6 Written with one /, afterward with two.
- <sup>7</sup> Here final t was first dropped, then n, having become final, also disappeared, and at last final u was weakened to e; see 24. 1, note.
  - <sup>8</sup> In early inscriptions final m is often dropped.

# PART SECOND.

# ETYMOLOGY.

- 37. Etymology treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.
- 38. The Parts of Speech are—Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

# CHAPTER I.

#### NOUNS.

- **39.** A Noun or Substantive is a name, as of a person, place, or thing: *Cicero*, Cicero; *Rōma*, Rome; *domus*, house.
- A Proper Nous is a proper name, as of a person or place: Cicero , Roma.
- 2. A Common Norn is a name common to all the members of a class of objects: rir, man; cquas, horse. Common nouns include—
- 1) Collective Nouns, designating a collection of objects: populus, people; exercitus, army.
- Abstract Nouns, designating properties or qualities: virtūs, virtue; jūstitia, justice.
- Material Nouns, designating materials as such: aurum, gold; lignum, wood; aqua, water.
  - 40. Nouns have Gender, Number, Person, and Case.

#### I. Gender.

41. There are three genders'—Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

Note.-In some nouns gender is determined by signification; in others, by endings.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In English, Gender denotes sex. Accordingly, masculine nouns denote males; feminine nouns, females; and neuter nouns, objects which are neither male nor female. In Latin, however, this natural distinction of gender is applied only to the names of males and females; while, in all other nouns, gender depends upon an artificial distinction according to grammatical rules.

# 42. GENERAL RULES FOR GENDER.

- I. MASCULINES.
- 1. Names of Males: Cicero; vir, man; rex, king.
- 2. Names of Rivers, Winds, and Months: Rhēnus, Rhine: Notus, south wind; Mārtius, March.

# II. FEMININES.

- 1. Names of Females: mulier, woman; leaena, lioness.
- 2. Names of *Countries*. Towns, Islands, and Trees: Graecia, Greece; Rōma, Rome: Dēlos, Delos; pirus, peartree.

Note.—Indeclinable nouns,  $^{1}$  infinitives, and all clauses used as nouns are neuter: alpha, the letter  $a.^{2}$ . See also 532.

## 43. REMARKS ON GENDER.

- 1. Exceptions.—The endings <sup>3</sup> of nouns sometimes give them a gender at variance with these rules. Thus, some names of *rivers*, countries, towns, islands, trees, and animals take the gender of their endings; see 53, 1.
- 2. MASCULINE OR FEMININE.—A few personal appellatives applicable to both sexes and a few names of animals are sometimes masculine and sometimes feminine, but when used without distinct reference to sex they are generally masculine:  $c\bar{v}vis$ , citizen (man or woman);  $b\bar{o}s$ , ox, cow.
- 3. EFICENE NOUNS apply only to the inferior animals. They are used for both sexes, but have only one gender, and that is usually determined by their endings: ānser, goose, masculine; aquila, eagle, feminine.

# II. Person and Number.

44. The Latin, like the English, has three persons and two numbers. The first person denotes the speaker; the second, the person spoken to; the third, the person spoken of. The singular number denotes one, the plural more than one.

# III. CASES.4

# 45. The Latin has six cases:

<sup>1</sup> Except names of persons.

<sup>2</sup> See 128, 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Gender as determined by the endings of nouns will be noticed in connection with the several declensions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The case of a noun shows the relation which that noun sustains to other words; as, John's book. Here the possessive case (John's) shows that John sustains to the book the relation of possessor.

NAMES. ENGLISH EQUIVALENTS.

Nominative, Nominative.

Genitive, Possessive, or Objective with of.

Dative, Objective with to or for.

Accusative, Objective.

Vocative, Nominative Independent.

Ablative, Objective with from, with, by, in.

1. OBLIQUE CASES.—The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called the Oblique Cases.

2. LOCATIVE.—The Latin has also a few remnants of another case, called the Locative, denoting the place in which.

#### DECLENSION.

- 46. STEM AND SUFFIXES.—The process by which the several cases of a word are formed is called Declension. It consists in the addition of certain suffixes to one common base called the stem.
- 1. Meaning.—Accordingly, each case-form contains two distinct elements—the stem, which gives the general meaning of the word, and the case-suffix, which shows the relation of that meaning to some other word. Thus, in rēg-is, of a king, the general idea, king, is denoted by the stem rēg; the relation of, by the suffix is.
  - 2. Cases alike.—But certain eases are not distinguished in form.
- 1) The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative in Neuters are alike, and in the plural end in a.
- 2) The *Nominative* and *Vocative* are alike, except in the singular of nouns in us of the second declension (51).<sup>2</sup>
  - 3) The Dative and Ablative Plural are alike.
- 3. Characteristic.—The last letter of the stem is called the Stem-Characteristic, or the Stem-Ending.
- 47. FIVE DECLENSIONS.—In Latin there are five declensions, distinguished from each other by the *stem-characteristics* or by the *endings* of the *Genitive Singular*, as follows:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Moreover, in many words the stem itself is derived from a more primitive form called a *Root*—For the distinction between *roots* and *stems*, and for the manner in which the latter are formed from the former, see 313-318.

<sup>2</sup> And in some nouns of Greek origin.

	CHARACTERISTICS.	GENITIVE ENDINGS.
DEC. I.	ă	ae
II,	0	î
III.	i or a conse	onant is
IV.	u	ធិន
V.	ĕ	ĕī

Note 1.—The five declensions are only five varieties of one general system of inflection, as the case-suffixes are nearly identical in all nouns.

Note 2.—But these case-suffixes appear distinct and unchanged only in nouns with consonant-stems, while in all others they are seen only in combination with the characteristic, i. e., with the final vowel of the stem.

NOTE 3.—The ending produced by the union of the case-sufix with the characteristic rowel may for convenience be called a Case-Ending.

#### FIRST DECLENSION: A NOUNS.

# 48. Nouns of the first declension end in

a and ē-feminine; ās and ēs-masculine.1

Nouns in a are declined as follows:

		SINGULAR.	
E	XAMPLE.	MEANING.	CASE-ENDING.
Nom.	mēnsa,	a table,2	a <sup>3</sup>
Gen.	mēnsae,	of a tuble,	ae
Dat.	mēnsae,	to, for a table,	ae
Acc.	mēnsaum,	a table,	am
Loc.	mēnsa,	O table,	a
Abl.	mēns <b>ā</b> ,	from, with, by a table,4	ā
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	mēns <b>ae</b> ,	tables,	ae
Gen.	mēnsārum,	of tables,	ārum
Dat.	mēnsīs,	to, for lables,	ĩs
Acc.	mēns <b>ās</b> ,	tables,	ās
Voc.	mēnsae,	O tables,	ae
Abl.	mēns <b>īs</b> ,	from, with, by tables.4	īs

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> That is, nouns of this declension in a and  $\bar{e}$  are feminine, and those in  $\bar{a}s$  and  $\bar{e}s$  are massuline.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Nom. mēnsa may be translated a table, table, or the table; see 48, 6.

<sup>3</sup> These case-endings will serve as a practical guide to the learner in distinguishing the different cases. The two elements which originally composed them have undergone various changes, and in certain cases the one or the other has nearly or quite disappeared. Thus the suffix has disappeared in the Nominative and Vocative Singular, and appears only as e in four other case forms, while the characteristic a has disappeared in the ending is, contracted from a-iv, in the Dative and Ablative Plural; see 23, 2, note.

<sup>4</sup> Still other prepositions, as in, on, at, are sometimes used in translating the Ablative

- 1. Stem.—In nouns of the first declension, the stem ends in a.
- 2. In the Paradigm, observe that the stem is mēnsā, and that the several cases are distinguished from each other by their case-endings.
  - 3. Examples for Practice.—Like minsa decline:

Ala, wing; aqua, water; causa, cause; jortāna, fortune.

4. LOCATIVE.—Names of towns and a very few other words have a Locative Singular<sup>1</sup> in ae, denoting the place in which (45, 2), and are declined in the singular<sup>2</sup> number as follows:

Nom.	Roma, Rome,	mīliti <b>a,</b> war,3
Gen.	Romae, of Rome,	mīliti <b>ae</b> , <i>of war</i> ,
Dat.	Romae, jor Rome,3	mīliti <b>ae</b> , <i>jor war</i> ,
Acc.	Romann, Rome,	mīlitizama, war,
Voc.	Roma, O Rome,	mīlitia, O war,
Abl.	Romā, from Rome,3	mīlitiā. jrom war,
Loc.	Romae, at Rome.	mīlitiae, in war.

- 5. Excertions in Gender.—1. A few nouns in a are masculine by signification: agricola, husbandman; see 42, I.—2. Hadria, Adriatic Sea, is masculine; sometimes also dāmma, deer, and talpa, mole.
- 6. Article.—The Latin has no article: corona, crown, a crown, the crown; ala, wing, a wing, the wing.
  - 49. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur: 4
- 1. ās in the Genitive of familia, in composition with pater, mater, filius, and filia: paterfamilias, father of a family.
- 2. āī, an old form for the Genitive ending ae, in the poets: 5 aulāī, afterward aulae, of a hall.
- 3. ūm 6 in the Genitive Plural: Dardanidām for Dardanidārum, of the descendants of Dardanus.
- 4. ābus in the Dative and Ablative Plural, especially in dea, goddess, and filia, daughter, to distinguish them from the same cases of deue, god, and filius, son: deābus for deīs, to goddesses.

¹ In the Plural of all nouns the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative: Athēnēs, at Athens. Whether, however, the form Athēnēs is in origin a Locative, an Ablative, or neither, is a disputed question. See Bopp, L. pp. 484 seq.; Schleicher, pp. 586, 587; Penka, p. 194; Delbrück, p. 27; Merguet, pp. 116, 117; Wordsworth, p. 59. In most nouns the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative in both numbers.

<sup>2</sup> The Plural when used is like the Plural of mensa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> For the other prepositions which may be used in translating the Dative and the Ablative, see 45. Militia, war, warfare, military service.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> To these must be added for early Latin  $\tilde{a}$  in the Nom. and Voc. Sing. and  $\tilde{a}d$  in the Abl. Sing.; see 21, 2, 1), and 36, 5, 2).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Also in inscriptions as the ending of the Genitive, Dative, and Locative,

<sup>6</sup> Contracted from a-um like the Greek á-wv. wv.

Note.—Nouns in ia sometimes have is for iis in the Dative and Ablative Plural: grātis for grātis, from grātia, favor, kindness.

50. Greek Nouns.—Nouns of this declension in **ē**, **ās**, and **ēs** are of Greek origin, and are declined as follows:

Epitomē, epitome.	Aenēās, Aeneas.	Pyrītēs, pyrites.
	SINGULAR.	
Nom. epitom€	Aenē <b>ās</b> -	pyrît <b>ēs</b>
Gen. epitomēs	$\Lambda$ enē $\mathbf{ae}$	pyrīt <b>ae</b>
$\cdot Dat$ . epitom $\mathbf{ae}$	$ m Aenar{e}ae$	pyrīt <b>ae</b>
Acc. epitomæn	Aenē <b>am, ān</b>	pyrīt <b>ēn</b>
Voc. epitom€	Aenē <b>ā</b>	pyrīt <b>ē</b> , <b>a</b>
$Abl$ . epitom $oldsymbol{ar{e}}$	Aenē <b>ā</b>	pyrīt <b>ē, ā</b>
	PLURAL.	
Nom. epitomae		pyrīt <b>ae</b>
Gen. epitomärum		pyrīt <b>ārum</b>
Dat. epitomīs		pyrīt <b>īs</b>
Acc. epitomās		pyrīt <b>ās</b>
Voc. epitomae		pyrīt <b>ae</b>
Abl. epitom is		pyrītīs

Note 1.—In the Plural and in the Dative Singular, Greek nouns are declined like mensu.

Note 2.—In nouns in  $\tilde{e}$  and  $\tilde{e}s$ , the stem-ending  $\tilde{a}$  is changed to  $\tilde{e}$  in certain cases. Note 3.—Many Greek nouns assume the Latin ending a, and are declined like  $m\tilde{e}nsa$ .

Many in ē have also a form in a: epitomē, epitoma, epitome.

# SECOND DECLENSION: O NOUNS.

51. Nouns of the second declension end in

er, ir, us, and os '-masculine; um, and on-neuter.

Nouns in er, ir, us, and um are declined as follows:

Servus, 2 slave. Puer, boy. Ager, field. Templum, temple.

		SINGULA	R.	
Nom. serv	us³	puer	ager	templum
Gen. serv	ī	puer <b>ī</b>	agrī	templī
Dat. serv	ō	puer <b>ō</b>	agr <b>ō</b>	templ <b>ō</b>
Acc. serv	TREE	puerum	agr <b>um</b>	templarra
Voc. serv	e.	puer	ager	templum
Abl. serv	Ō	puer	$\operatorname{agr}\mathbf{\tilde{o}}$	$\mathbf{templ}ar{oldsymbol{o}}$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sometimes čs.

<sup>2</sup> Sometimes written servos; see 52, 1.

<sup>3</sup> In the Reman and in the Continental pronunciation, quantity furnishes a safe guide

PI	1	١,	D	A	T

Nom. servī	puerl	agr <b>ī</b>	templa
Gen. serv <b>õrum</b>	puer <b>ōrum</b>	agr <b>ōrum</b>	templ <b>ōrum</b>
Dat. servis	puer <b>īs</b>	agr <b>īs</b>	templ <b>īs</b>
Acc. servās	puer <b>ōs</b>	agr <b>ōs</b>	templ <b>a</b>
Voc. servī	puer <b>ī</b>	agr <b>ī</b>	templ <b>a</b>
Abl. servis	puerīs	agr <b>īs</b>	templīs

- 1. Stem.—In nouns of the second declension, the stem ends in o.
- 2. In the Paradigms, observe-
- 1) That the stems are servo, puero, agro, and templo.
- 2) That the characteristic o becomes **u** in the endings us and um, and **e** in serve, <sup>1</sup> that it disappears by contraction in the endings a, <sup>2</sup>  $\bar{\imath}$ , and  $\bar{\imath}s$  (for o-a, o-i, and o-is), <sup>3</sup> and is dropped in the forms pner and ager.
- 3) That the case-endings, including the characteristic o (47, N. 2), are as follows:

NEUT.
a
ōrum
īs
a
a
18

- 4) That puer and ager differ in declension from servus in dropping the endings us and e in the Nominative and Vocative: Nom. puer for puerus, Voc. puer for puere.
  - 5) That e in ager is developed by the final r.5
- 6) That templim, as a neuter noun, has the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative alike, ending in the plural in a; see 46, 2, 1).
- 3. Examples for Practice.—Like servus: dominus, master. Like puer: gener, son-in-law. Like ager: magister, master. Like templum: bellum, war.

to the sounds of the vowels; see 5. In the English method, on the contrary, the quantity of the vowels is entirely disregarded, except as it affects the accent of the word. Thus, a in ager is short in quantity, but long in sound (10, 3), while l in servis, pueris, agris, and templis is long in quantity but short in sound (11, 1). Accordingly, in this method, the sounds of the vowels must be determined by the rules given in 9. 10, and 11. Moreover, the learner must not forget that when the quantity of the vowel is known, the quantity of the syllable, as used in poetry, is readily determined by article 16.

<sup>1</sup> See 22 and 24, 1, note,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Shortened from a; see 21, 2, 1).

<sup>8</sup> See 23, note, and 27.

<sup>4</sup> The endings of the Nom, and Voc. Sing, are wanting in nouns in er,

<sup>5</sup> See 29, note.

- 4. Nouns in er and ir.—Most nouns in er are declined like ager, but the following in er and ir are declined like puer:
  - 1) Nouns in ir: vir, virī, man.
- 2) Compounds in fer and ger: armiger, armigeri, armor-bearer; signifer, signiferi, standard-bearer.
- 3) Adulter, adulterer; Celtiber, Celtiberian; gener, son-in-law; Iber, Spaniard; Līber, Bacchus; līberī, children; Mulciber, Vulcan; presbyter, elder; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening.
- 5. Nouns in ius generally contract ii in the Genitive Singular and ie in the Vocative Singular into i without change of accent: Claudi for Claudii, of Claudius, f'ili for f'ili, of a son; Mercu'ri for Mercu'rie, Mercury, f'ili for f'ilie, son.<sup>2</sup> In the Genitive Singular of nouns in ium the same contraction takes place: inge'ni for inge'ni, of talent; see 18, 1.
- 6. Deus is thus declined: Sing. deus, deī, deū, deum, deus, deō: Plur. N. and V. deī, dīi, dī;³ G. deōrum, deūm; D. and Λ. deīs, dīis, dīs;³ Λec. deōs.
- 7. NEUTERS IN **us.**—The three neuter nouns in us, 4 pelagus, sea, vīrus, poison, and rulgus, the common people, are declined in the singular as follows:

Nom., Acc., Voe.	pelagus	vīrus	vulgus⁵
Gen.	pelagī	vīrī	vulgī
Dat., Abl.	pelagō	vīrō	$\mathrm{vul} g_{ar{0}}$

Note.—Pelagus is a Greek noun (54, N. 2), and in general is used only in the singular, though pelage occurs as an Acc. Plur. Virus and rulgus are used only in the singular. Vulgus has a masculine Acc., rulgum, in addition to the neuter form rulgus.

8. Locative.—Names of towns and a few other words have a Locative Singular  $^6$  in  $\bar{z}$ , denoting the  $p^lace$  in which (45, 2), and are declined in the singular  $^7$  number as follows:

Nem.	Ephesus, Ephesus,		bellum, war,
Gen.	Ephes1, of Ephesus,		bellī, of war,
Dat.	Epheso, for Ephesus,		bell $ar{o}$ , for war,
Ace.	Ephesum, Ephesus,	4	bellum, war,
Voc.	Ephese, O Ephesus,		bellum, Owar,
Abl.	Ephesō, from Ephesus,		bello, from, by war,
Loe.	EphesE, at Ephesus.		bell $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ , in war.

<sup>1</sup> Celti'er and Iter have e long in the Gen., and Mulciber sometimes drops e.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Nouns in *ètus* sometimes contract *ète* in the Voc. Sing. into *ēt*; Pompéi or Pompēi, Pompey.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Di and dis are the approved forms, but dei, dii and deis, diis also occur.

<sup>4</sup> Originally s-stems which by the loss of s in the oblique cases have become o-stems; see G2, 1., 1, foot-note.

<sup>5</sup> Also written rolans.

<sup>6</sup> In the Phral the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative: Gabii, see 48, 4, foot-note.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The Plural, when used, is like the Plural of servus, puer, etc.

- 52. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur: 1
- 1. os and om, old endings for us and um, sometimes used after v and  $u:^2$  serves for servus, servem for servum; mortues for mortues, dead.
  - 2. us for c in the Vocative of deus, god; rare in other words.
- 3. **um** in the Genitive Plural, especially common in a few words denoting money, weight, and measure: talentām for talentārum, of talents; also in a few other words: deām for deārum; līberām for līberārum; Argīvām for Argīvārum.

Note.—The ending  $\bar{u}m$  occurs also in the Genitive Plural of many other words, especially in poetry,

- 53. GENDER.—Nouns in er, ir, us, and os are masculine, those in um and on are neuter; except—
- 1. The Feminines:—(1) See 42, II., but observe that many names of countries, towns, islands, and trees follow the gender of their endings. (2) Most names of gems and ships are feminine: also alvus, belly; carbasus, sail; colus, distaff; humus, ground; rannus, sieve. (3) A few Greek feminines.
- The Neuters:—pelagus, sea; vīrus, poison; vulgus, common people.
   For declension, see 51, 7.
- 54. Greek Nouns.—Nouns of this declension in os. ōs, and on are of Greek origin, and are declined in the singular as follows:

Dēlos, F., 3 Delos.	$\Lambda ndrogeos, Androgeos.$	Īlion, Ilium
Nom. Dēlos	${\rm Androge} \boldsymbol{\bar{o}s}$	Īli <b>on</b>
Gen. Delī	Androgeō, I	Īliī
Dat. Dēlō	$\Lambda \mathrm{ndroge}oldsymbol{ar{o}}$	Īliō
Acc. Dēlon	Androgeom, o	Īlion
Voc. Dēle	Androge <b>ōs</b>	Īlion
Abl. Dēl <b>ō</b>	$\Lambda$ ndroge $ar{oldsymbol{o}}$	Īliō

Note 1.—The Plural of nouns in os and on is generally regular, but certain Greek endings occur, as oe in the Nominative Plural, and  $\dot{v}u$  in the Genitive.

Note 2.—Most Greek nouns generally assume the Latin forms in us and um, and are declined like servus and templum. Many in os or on have also a form in us or um.

Note 3 .- For Greek nonns in eus, see 68 and 68, 1,

Note 4.—Pant'i us has Voc. Panthi. For pelagus, see 51, 7, note.

¹ To these must be added for early Latin; 1) ēd in Abl. Sing., and ā in Nom., Acc., and Voc. of the Neut. Plur.; see 36, 5, 2), and 21, 2, 1); 2) oc in Gen. Sing.; oc, ē, ēs, ets. and ls in Nom. Plur.; poploe=populi; ploirum!=plūrimī; virēs=virī; leibereis or leiberis=fiberi.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Some recent editors have adopted vos, uos, rom and uom, for rus, uus, rum and uum, but the wisdom of such a course is at least questionable. See Brambach, p. 3.

<sup>3</sup> M. stands for masculine, F. for feminine, and N. for neuter.

#### THIRD DECLENSION: CONSONANT AND I NOUNS.

55. Nouns of the third declension end in

# $\mathbf{a}$ , $\mathbf{e}$ , $\mathbf{\tilde{i}}$ , $\mathbf{\tilde{o}}$ , $\mathbf{y}$ , $\mathbf{c}$ , $\mathbf{l}$ , $\mathbf{n}$ , $\mathbf{r}$ , $\mathbf{s}$ , $\mathbf{t}$ , and $\mathbf{x}$ .

- 56. Nouns of this declension may be divided into two classes:
  - I. Nouns whose stem ends in a Consonant.
  - II. Nouns whose stem ends in L.

#### CLASS I -- CONSONANT STEMS.

## 57. Stems ending in a Labial: B or P.

# Princeps, M., 2 a leader, chief.

		SINGULAR.	Case-Suffixes.
Nom.	prīnceps,	a leader,	S
Gen.	prīncip <b>is</b> ,	of a leader,	is
Dat.	prīncip <b>ī</b> ,	to, for a leader,	ĩ
∠1 <i>ec</i> .	prīncip <b>em</b> ,	a leader,	em
Voc.	prīnceps,	O leader,	s
$\Delta bl$ .	prīncipe,	from, with, by a leader,	e
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	prīncip <b>ēs</b> ,	leaders,	ēs
Gen.	prīncip <b>tata</b> ,	of leaders,	um
$m{D}at.$	prīncip <b>ibus</b> ,	to, for leaders,	ibus
Acc.	prīncip <b>ēs</b> ,	leaders,	ës
Voc.	prīncipēs,	O leaders,	ēs
Abl.	prīncipālous,	from, with, by leaders.	ibus

- 1. STEM AND CASE-SUFFIXES.—In this Paradigm observe-
- 1) That the stem is princep, modified before an additional syllable to princip; see 23, 1, and 57, 2.
- 2) That the case-suffixes appear distinct and separate from the stem; 3 see 46, 1, and 47, note 2.
- 2. Variable Vowel.—In the final syllable of dissyllabic consonant stems, short **e** or **i** generally takes the form of *e* in the Nominative and Vocative Singular and that of *i* in all the other cases. Thus *princeps*,

For Gender, sec 99-115.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See foot-note 3, p. 29.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Thus, princep-s, princip-is, etc. In the first and second declensions, on the contrary, the suffix can not be separated from the final vowel of the stem in such forms as mēnsis, pueri, agr's, etc.

prīncipis, and jūdex, jūdicis (59), alike have c in the Nominative and Vocative Singular and i in all the other cases, though in prīnceps the original form of the radical vowel is e, and in jūdex, i. For a similar change in the vowel of the stem, see miles, mīlitis (58), and carmen, carminis (60). See also opus, operis (61).

- 3. In monosyllables in bs the stem ends in i; see urbs, 64.
- 4. For the Locative in the Third Declension, sec 66, 4.
- 5. For Synopsis of Declension, see 87, 89.

# 58. Stems ending in a Dental: D or T.

Lapi	s, M., stone.	Aetās, f., age.	Miles, M., soldier.
		SINGULAR.	
Nom.	lapis	aetās	miles
Gen.	lapid <b>is</b>	aetāt <b>is</b>	mīlit <b>is</b>
$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{D}}at.$	lapid <b>ī</b>	aetāt <b>ī</b>	mīlit <b>ī</b>
Acc.	lapid <b>em</b>	aetāt <b>em</b>	mīlit <b>em</b>
Voc.	lapis	aetã <b>s</b>	mîles
Abl.	$\operatorname{lapid}\mathbf{e}$	aetāte	mīlite
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	lapid <b>ēs</b>	aetāt <b>ēs</b>	mīlit <b>ēs</b> .
Gen.	lapiduama	aetätenna	mīlit <b>urm</b>
Dat.	lapid <b>ibus</b>	aetāt <b>ibus</b>	mīlit <b>ibus</b>
Acc.	lapid <b>ēs</b>	aetāt <b>ēs</b>	mīlit <b>ēs</b>
Voc.	lapid <b>ēs</b>	aetāt <b>ēs</b>	mīlit <b>ēs</b>
Abl.	lapid <b>ibus</b>	aetāt <b>ibus</b>	mīlit <b>ibus</b>
Nepōs,	M., grandson.	Virtūs, F., virtue.	Caput, N., head.
		SINGULAR,	
Nom.	nepūs	virtūs	caput
Gen.	nepōt <b>is</b>	virtūt <b>is</b>	eapit <b>is</b>
Dat.	nepōt <b>ī</b>	virtūtī	eapit <b>ī</b>
Acc.	nepõt <b>em</b>	virtūtem	eaput
Voc.	nepõs	virtūs	caput
Abl.	nepōt <b>e</b>	virtūt <b>e</b>	capite
		PLUPAL.	
Nom.	nepōt <b>ēs</b>	virtūt <b>ēs</b>	eapit <b>a</b>
Gen.	nepōt <b>um</b>	virtāt <b>um</b>	eapit <b>um</b>
Dat.	nepōt <b>ibus</b>	virtūt <b>ibus</b>	eapit <b>ibus</b>

<sup>1</sup> Sec 22. 1.

<sup>2</sup> See 22, 1, foot-note

Acc.	nepõt <b>ēs</b>	' virtūt <b>ēs</b>	capit <b>a</b>
l'oc.	nepõt <b>ēs</b>	virtūt <b>ēs</b>	capit <b>a</b>
Abl.	nepōt <b>ibus</b>	virtūt i louis	capit <b>i Dus</b>

- Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In these Paradigms observe—
- 1) That the stems are lapid, aetāt, mīlit, nepōt, virtūt, and caput.
- 2) That miles has the variable vowel, e, i, and caput, u, i; see 57, 2.
- 3) That the dental d or t is dropped before s: lapis for lapids, aetās for aetāts, mīles for mīlets, virtās for virtāts; see 36, 2.
- 4) That the ease-suffixes, except in the neuter, caput (46, 2), are the same as those given above; see 57.
- 5) That the neuter, e.qut, has no ease-suffix in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular, a in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural, and the suffixes of masculine and feminine nouns in the other cases.
- 2. NEUTER STEMS IN at drop t in the Nominative Singular and end in a: Nom., poēma, Gen., poēmatis; Stem, poēmat. These nouns sometimes have is for ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural: poēmatis for poēmatibus.
  - 3. For Synopsis of Declension, see 69, 78-84.

## 59. STEMS ENDING IN A GUTTURAL: C OR G.

	Rēx, м.,	Jūdex, M. & 1	f., Rādīx, f.,	Dux, M. & F.,
	king.	judge.	root.	leader.
		SINGULA	R.	
Nom.	rēx	jūdex	rādīx	dux
Gen.	rēg <b>is</b>	jūdic£s	rādīc <b>is</b>	duc <b>is</b>
Dat.	rēgī	jūdicī	rādīe <b>ī</b>	ducī
Acc.	rég <b>em</b>	jūdic <b>em</b>	rādīc <b>em</b>	duc <b>em</b>
	rēx	jūdex	rādīx	dux
Abl.	$r\ddot{e}g\mathbf{e}$	jūdic <b>e</b>	rādīc <b>e</b>	$\mathrm{duc}\mathbf{e}$
		PLURAI	·.	
Nom.	rēg <b>ēs</b>	jūdic <b>ēs</b>	rādīc <b>ēs</b>	duc <b>ēs</b>
Gen.	regum	jūdiemm	rādīcum	duc <b>um</b>
Dat.	rēg <b>ibus</b>	jūdic <b>ibus</b>	rādīc <b>ibus</b>	ducibus
Acc.	rēg <b>ēs</b>	jūdicēs	rādīc <b>ēs</b>	duc <b>ēs</b>
Voc.	rēg <b>ēs</b>	jūdic <b>ēs</b>	rādīc <b>ēs</b>	duc <b>ēs</b>
Abl.	rēgibus	jūdic <b>ibus</b>	rādīc <b>ibus</b>	ducibus

- Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In the Paradigms observe—
- 1) That the stems are  $r\bar{e}g$ ,  $j\bar{u}dic$ ,  $r\bar{a}d\bar{e}e$ , and duc;  $j\bar{u}dic$  with the variable vowel, i. e; see 57, 2.
  - 2) That the case-suffixes are those given in 57.
- 3) That **s** in the Nominative and Vocative Singular unites with e or g of the stem and forms x; see 30.
  - 2. For Synopsis of Declension, see Nouns in x, 91-98.

# 60. Stems ending in L, M, N, or R.

	Sõl, M.,	Cönsul, M.,	Passer, M.,	Pater, M.,
	sun.	consul.	sparrow.	futher.
		SINGULAR		
Nom.	sõl	cõnsul	passer	pater
Gen.	sõlis	consul <b>is</b>	passeris	patris
Dat.	sõlT	eōnsul <b>ī</b>	passer <b>T</b>	patrI
Acc.	sõl <b>em</b>	consul <b>em</b>	passerem	patr <b>em</b>
Voc.	sõl	consul	passer	pater
Abl.	$s$ ol $\mathbf{e}$	consule	passer <b>e</b>	patre
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	sõl <b>ēs</b> 1	consul <b>ēs</b>	passer <b>ēs</b>	patr <b>ēs</b>
Gen.		consultana	passer <b>um</b>	patrum
Dat.	sõl <b>ibus</b>	consul <b>ābus</b>	passer <b>ibus</b>	patribus
Acc.	sõl <b>ēs</b>	consul <b>ēs</b>	passer <b>ēs</b>	patrēs
Voc.	sõl <b>ēs</b>	consul <b>ēs</b>	passer <b>ēs</b>	patr <b>ē</b>
Abl.	sõl <b>ibus</b>	consul <b>ibus</b>	passer <b>ibus</b>	patr <b>ibus</b>
	Pästor, M.,	Leŏ, M.,	Virgō, F.,	Carmen, N.,
	shepherd.	lion.	maiden.	song.
		SINGULAD.		
Nom.	pāstor	leŏ	virgŏ	carmen
Gcn.	pāstēr <b>is</b>	leōn <b>is</b>	virginis	carmin <b>is</b>
Dat.	pāstōr <b>ī</b>	leōn <b>ī</b>	virgin <b>T</b>	carmin <b>T</b>
Acc.	pāstōr <b>em</b>	leôn <b>em</b>	virgin <b>em</b>	carmen
Voc.	pästor	leŏ	virgő	carmen
Abl.	pāstōr <b>e</b>	leōn <b>e</b>	virgine	carmin <b>e</b>
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	pāstör <b>ēs</b>	leon <b>ës</b>	virginēs	carmin <b>a</b>
Gen.	pāstōrum	leōn <b>um</b>	virginam	carmin <b>am</b>
Dat.	pāstēr <b>ibus</b>	leōn <b>ibus</b>	virgin <b>i bus</b>	carmin <b>ibus</b>
Acc.	pāstör <b>ēs</b>	leon <b>ës</b>	virgines	carmin <b>a</b>
Voc.	pāstōr <b>ēs</b>	leön <b>ës</b>	virgin <b>ēs</b>	carmin <b>a</b>
Abl.	pāstēr <b>ibus</b>	leōn <b>ibus</b>	virgin <b>ibus</b>	carmin <b>ibus</b>

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In the Paradigms observe—
- 1) That the stems are sôl, consul, passer, patr, 2 pastor, leon, virgon, and carmen.

<sup>1</sup> Many monosyllables want the Gen. Plur.; see 133, 5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> That is, the stem is patr when followed by a vowel; but when r becomes final, it develops e before it, and patr becomes pater; see 29, note.

- 2) That virgo (virgon) has the variable vowel, o, i, and carmen, e, i.
- 3) That in the Nominative and Vocative Singular s, the usual case-suffix for masculine and feminine nouns, is omitted, and that in those cases the stem  $p\bar{a}st\bar{v}r$  shortens o, while  $le\bar{v}n$  and virgon drop n; see 21, 2, 2), and 36, 5, 3).
- 2. Hiems, the only stem in m, takes s in the Nominative and Vocative Singular. Also sanguis (for sanguins), blood, and Salamis (for Salamins), Salamis, which drop n before s; see 36, 3, note 3.
- 3. Passer, Pater.—Most nouns in er are declined like passer, but those in ter, and a few others, are declined like pater; see 77, 2.
- 4. Leő, Vingő.—Most nouns in **o** are declined like *le*ő, but those in **d**ő and gő, with a few others, are declined like *viryő*; see 72, with exceptions.
  - 5. Four stems in or change o to u; see 77, 4.
  - 6. For the LOCATIVE IN THE THIRD DECLENSION, Sec 66, 4.
  - 7. For Synopsis of Declension, see 72, 75-77.

## 61. STEMS ENDING IN S.

	Flös, M.,	Jūs, n.,	Opus, N.,	Corpus, N.,
	flower.	right.	work.	body.
		SINGULA	R.	
Nom.	flős	jūs	opus	corpus
Gen.	flör <b>is</b>	jūr <b>is</b>	oper <b>is</b>	eorpor <b>is</b>
Dat.	flörī	jūr <b>ī</b>	oper <b>ī</b>	eorpor <b>ī</b>
Acc.	flörenn	jūs	opus	corpus
Voc.	flös	jūs	opus	corpus
Abl.	flör <b>e</b>	jūr <b>e</b>	oper ${f e}$	$\operatorname{corpor} \mathbf{e}$
		PLURAL		
Nom.	flör <b>ēs</b>	jūr <b>a</b>	oper <b>a</b>	corpora
Gen.	flörmum	jūruum	operum	corportum
Dat.	flör <b>íbus</b>	jūr <b>ilon</b> s	oper <b>ibus</b>	corporibus
Acc.	flör <b>ēs</b>	jūr <b>a</b>	opera	eorpor <b>a</b>
$\Gamma oc.$	flör <b>ēs</b>	jūr <b>a</b>	oper <b>a</b>	corpora
Abl.	flöribus	jūr <b>ibus</b>	oper <b>ibus</b>	corporibus

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In the Paradigms observe—
- 1) That the stems are flos, jūs, opos, and corpos.
- 2) That opus has the variable vowel, e, u, and corpus, o, u.
- 3) That s of the stem becomes r between two vowels: flos, floris (for flosis); see 31, 1.
  - 4) That the Nom. and Voe. Sing. omit the ease-suffix; see 60, 1, 3).
  - 2. For Synopsis of Declension, see 79, 80, 82-84.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Opos occurs in early Latin. In os, from the Primary Suffix as (320), o was weakened to u in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Sing. of opus and corpus, while in all the other case-forms it was weakened to  $\epsilon$  in opus, but retained unchanged in corpus; see 22.

#### CLASS II.-I STEMS.

62. Stems ending in I.—Nouns in is and ēs, not increasing in the Genitive.

	Tussis, F.,	Turris, F.,	Ignis, M.,	Hostis, M. & F.,	Nūbēs,2 F.,
	cough.	tower.	jire.	enemy.	cloud.
			SINGULAR.		
Nom	. tuss <b>is</b>	turr <b>is</b>	ign <b>is</b>	hostis	nūb <b>ēs</b>
Gen.	tussis	turris	ign <b>is</b>	hostis	nūb <b>is</b>
Dat.	tussī	turrī	ign¥	hostī	nūb <b>ī</b>
Acc.	tussium	turrim, er	n ignem	host e-em	nübezz
Voc.	tussis	turris	ign <b>is</b>	host <b>is</b>	nübēs
Abl.	tussī,	turr <b>ī</b> , e	ign <b>ī, e</b>	$\mathbf{hoste}$	${ m nar ub}{f e}$
			PLURAL.		
Nom	. tuss <b>ēs</b>	turrēs	ignēs	hostēs	nüb $ar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{s}$
Gen.	tussium	turr <b>ium</b>	ign <b>iun</b>	a hostiuma	nüb <b>i u m</b>
Dat.	tuss <b>ibus</b>	turr <b>ibus</b>	ign <b>i b u</b>	s hostibus	nūb <b>ibus</b>
Acc.	tuss <b>ēs</b> , Is	turrēs, Is	ign <b>ēs</b> , 1	īs hostēs, īs	nūb <b>ēs, Is</b>
Voc	tussēs	turrēs	ignēs	$\mathrm{host} ar{\mathbf{e}} \mathbf{s}$	nūb <b>ēs</b>
Abl.	tuss <b>ibus</b>	turribus	ign <b>i b u</b>	s hostibus	nūb <b>ibus</b>

- I. Paradigms.—Observe—
- 1. That the stems are tussi, turri, igni, hosti, and nūbi.3
- 2. That the case-endings, including the characteristic i, which disappears in certain cases, are as follows:

LAR. PLUR	L.
ēs ēs	
iur	n
ibı	13
, em	ĭs
ēs	
e ibı	18
, em	

<sup>1</sup> That is, having as many syllables in the Nom, Sing, as in the Gen. Sing,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Observe (1) that tussis, turris, ignis, and hostis differ in declension only in the Acc, and Abl. Sing., tussis showing the final i of the stem in both those cases, turris sometimes in both, ignis sometimes in the Abl., not in the Acc., hos/is in neither (2) that nübés differs from the other four in taking is instead of is in the Nom. and Voc. Sing.

Nonns in is. Gen. is. are best treated as i-stems, although some of them were originally s-stems (61). Thus, originally the stem of nib s was itself nib s, but s was finally treated as the Nom. suffix, and the word was accordingly declined like the large class of i-nouns mentioned under 62, V. The origin of i-stems is obscure. A few correspond to i-stems in the cognate tongues, as ignis, ovis, turris; a few are weakened from a-stems or o-stems, as foris, a door, Gr. bipa, imber=imbris, rain-storm, Gr. buβρος; some are formed from s-stems, as nibis, just mentioned. Upon the general subject of i-stems, see Roby, pp. 136-140; Schleicher, pp. 354, 432, 453; Corssen, I. 251, 133 seq.; II. 227; Merguet, pp. 36-40, 51, 67, 95 etc.

- II. Like TUSSIS-Acc, im, ABL, 1-are declined-
- 1. Būris, plough-tail; rāvis, hoarseness; sitis, thirst.
- 2. In the Singular: (1) Names of rivers and places in is not increasing in the Genitive: Tiberis, Hispalis; see 582. (2) Greek nouns in is, Gen. is, and some others.

#### III. Like TURRIS-Acc. im, em, ABL. ī, e-are declined-

Clāvis, key; febris, fever; messis, harvest; nāvis, ship; puppis, stern; restis, rope; secūris, axe; sēmentis, sowing; striyilis, strigil.

1. Araris, or Arar (for Araris), the Saône, and Liger (for Ligeris), the Loire, have Acc. im, em, Abl. ī, e.

#### IV. Like IGNIS-Acc. em. ABL. ī. e-are declined-

Amnis, river; anguis, serpent; avis, bird; bīlis, bile; cīris, eitizen; clāssis, fleet; collis, hill; fīnis, end; orbis, eirele; postis, post; unguis, nail, and a few others.

NOTE 1.—Adjectives in er (for ris) and those in is have the Ablative in ī (153, 154). Accordingly, when such adjectives are used substantively, the ī is generally retained: September, September, September; familiāris, familiāris, finend. But adjectives used as proper names have e: Juvenālis, Juvenāle, Juvenāl.

Note 2.—Imber (for imbris), storm; vesper (for vesperis), evening, and a few others, sometimes have the Ablative in 1.

V. Like HOSTIS—ACC. em, ABL. e—are declined all nouns in is, Gen. is, not provided for under II., III., and IV.<sup>3</sup>

VI. Like NÜBES are declined all nouns in ēs, Gen. is.4

# 63. Stems ending in I.—Neuters in e, al, and ar.

M	are, sea.	Animal, animal.	Calcar, sp	ur.
		SINGULAR.		CASE-ENDINGS.
Nom.	mare	animal	calcar	e— 6
Gcn.	mar <b>is</b>	animāl <b>is</b>	caleār <b>is</b>	is
Dat.	mar <b>ī</b>	animāl <b>ī</b>	ealeār <b>ī</b>	ĩ
Acc.	mare	animal	calcar	c— 6
Voc.	$\max \mathbf{e}$	animal	calcar	e— 6
Abl.	marī <sup>5</sup>	animāl <b>ī</b>	calcār <b>ī</b>	ī

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The shortening of Araris to Arar and of Ligeris to Liger is similar to the shortening of puerus to puer; see 51, 2, 4; 36, 5, 2, note.

 $<sup>^2</sup>$  Names of months are adjectives used substantively. Originally  $\it{m\bar{e}nsis},$  month, was understood.

<sup>3</sup> Except canis and juvenis, which are consonant-stems, but have assumed i in the Non. Sing. In the plural they have um in the Gen. and \(\ilde{\epsilon}\) in the Acc. Apis, m\(\ilde{\epsilon}\) is and volucris often have um for ium in the Gen.

<sup>4</sup> Except struës and rātēs, which generally have um in Gen. Pl., and sēdēs, which has um or ium. Compēs, Gen. edis, has also tum.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See 2 below.

<sup>6</sup> The dash here implies that the case-ending is sometimes wanting.

		12	

Nom.	mar <b>ia</b>	animāl <b>iz</b>	calcār <b>ia</b>	ia
Gen.	marium	animāl <b>i u m</b>	calcăr <b>iu m</b>	ium
Dut.	maribus	animāl <b>ibus</b>	ealeāribus	ibus
Acc.	mar <b>ia</b>	animāl <b>ia</b>	calcār <b>ia</b>	ia
Voc.	mar <b>ia</b>	animālia	calcăria	ia
Abl.	maribus	animāl <b>ibus</b>	ealeār <b>ībus</b>	ibus

#### 1. Paradigms.—Observe—

- 1) That the stem ending i is changed to e in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular of mare, and dropped in the same cases of animal (for animale) and calear (for caleare); see 24, 1, note; 27; 21, 2, 2).
  - 2) That the ease-endings include the characteristic i.
- 2. The following have e in the Ablative Singular:—(1) Names of towns in e; Praeneste.—(2) Generally rete, net, and in poetry sometimes mare.

Note.—Neuters in ar, with a short in the Genitive, are consonant-stems; nectar, nectar; also s.l., salt, and f.l., eorn.

# 64. Stems ending in i.—Nouns in s and x generally preceded by a consonant.

	Cliens, M. & F.,	Urbs, F.,	Arx, f.,	Mūs, 1 M.,
	client.	city.	citadel.	mouse.
		SINGULAR.		
Nom.	cliëns	${f urbs}$	arx 3	műs
Gen.	elientis?	urbis	arcis	mūr <b>is</b> 4
Dat.	client	urbī	arc <b>ī</b>	mūr <del>ī</del>
Acc.	clientem	urbema	arc <b>em</b>	mürem
Voc.	cliëns	urbs	arx	mūs
Abl.	${ m client}{f e}$	${ m urb}{f e}$	arce	mūr <b>e</b>
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	client <b>ēs</b>	urbēs	arces	műr <b>és</b>
Gen.	clientium	urbieren	arcienta	mürütaran
Dat.	elientibus	urbibus	arc <b>ibus</b>	min <b>ibus</b>
Acc.	clientes, is	urbēs, īs	arcēs, īs	mürēs, Is
Voc.	client <b>ēs</b>	urbēs	arcēs	müres
Abl.	clientibus	urbibus	arcibus	mūr <b>ibus</b>

<sup>1</sup> Cliens is for clientis, urbs for urbis, arx for arcis, and mūs for mūsis; see 36.5, note. Mūs. originally ans-stem. Greek μῦς, became an i-stem in Latin by assuming i.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The vowel e is here short before nt, but long before ns; see 16, note 2. Indeed, it seems probable that nt and nd shorten a preceding vowel, as ns lengthens it. See Müller, p. 27; Ritschl, Rhein, Museum, xxxi., p. 488.

<sup>3</sup> X in arx=cs, c belonging to the stem, and s being the Nom. suffix.

<sup>4</sup> Mūris is for mūsis; s changed to r between two vowels; see 31, 1.

- 1. Paradigms.—Observe—
- 1) That the stems are clienti, urbi, arci, and mūri.
- 2) That these nouns are declined in the singular precisely like consonantstems, and in the plural precisely like all other masculine and feminine é-stems.<sup>1</sup>
  - 2. This class of i-stems includes—
- Most nouns in ns and rs:2 clients, clients, client; cohors, cohorts, cohort.
- 2) Monosyllables in s and x preceded by a consonant, and a few in s and x preceded by a vowel: urbs, city; arx, citadel; lis, strife; nox, night.
- 3) Names of nations in ās and īs, or, if plural, in ātēs and ītēs: Arpīnās, pl. Arpīnātēs, an Arpinatian, the Arpinates; Samnīs, pl. Samnītēs, the Samnītes.
- Optimātēs, the aristocraey; Penātēs, the household gods, and occasionally other nouns in ās.
- · Note 1.— Carō, flesh, has a form in is, carnis (for carinis), from which are formed carnī, carnium, etc.

Note 2.—Pars, part, sometimes has partim in the Accusative.

Note 3.— $R\bar{n}s$ , country, sors, lot, supeller, furniture, and a few other words sometimes have the Ablative in  $\bar{t}$ .

# 65. Summary of I-stems.—To I-stems belong—

- 1. All nouns in is and ēs which do not increase in the Genitive; see 62. Here belong also—
  - 1) Names of months in ber (for bris): September, October, etc.; see 62, N. 1.
- 2) The following nouns in ber and ter (for bris and tris): imber, storm; linter, boat; uter, leathern sack; venter, belly; generally also Insuber, an Insubrian.
- 2. Neuters in e, al (for alis) and ar (for aris); see 63; also 63, 2, note.
- 3. Many nouns in s and x—especially (1) nouns in ns and rs, and (2) monosyllables in s and x preceded by a consonant; see 64, 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Nouns thus declined are most conveniently treated as i-nouns, though the stem appears to end in a consonant in the Sing., and in i in the Plur. In some of these nouns the stem has lost its final i in the Sing., while in others it ended originally in a consonant, but afterward assumed i in the Plur., at least in certain cases; see **62**, I., footnote.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Some of these often have um in poetry and sometimes even in prose, as parêns, parent, generally has.

Except (ops) opis and the Greek nouns, grips, lynx, sphinx.

Namely, faux, glis, lis, mas, nix, nox, os (ossis), vis, generally fraus and mas.

# 66. Special Paradigms.

Sūs, M. & F swine.	r., Bōs, m. & f., ox, cov.		Senex, M., old man.	
	S	INGULAR.		
Nom. sūs	$\mathrm{b} ar{\mathrm{o}} \mathbf{s}^{ \mathrm{i}}$	nix	senex	vīs
Gen. suis	bov <b>is</b>	niv <b>is</b>	sen <b>is</b>	vīs 2
Dat. sul	bovī	nivī	senT	V <b>T</b> <sup>2</sup>
Acc. suem	bovem	niv <b>em</b>	sen <b>em</b>	VIHRA
Voc. sūs	bō <b>s</b>	nix	senex	vīs
Abl. sue	bove	nive	$\operatorname{sen}\mathbf{e}$	v <b>T</b>
		PLURAL.		
Nom. sues	$\mathrm{bov}\mathbf{ar{e}s}$	niv <b>ēs</b>	sen <b>ēs</b>	vir <b>ēs</b>
Gen. suun	bound	niv <b>iaum</b>	senum	vīr <b>ium</b>
Dat. \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	us ybō <b>bus¹</b> s (bū <b>bus¹</b>	niv <b>ibus</b>	sen <b>ibus</b>	vīr <b>ibus</b>
Acc. suēs	bov <b>ēs</b>	niv <b>ēs</b>	sen <b>ēs</b>	vîr <b>ës</b>
Voc. sues	bov <b>ēs</b>	niv <b>ēs</b>	sen <b>ēs</b>	vīr <b>ēs</b>
Abl \subu	ns (bā <b>bus</b> is (bā <b>bu</b> s	niv <b>ibus</b>	sen <b>ibus</b>	vīribus

- 1. The Stems are su; bov; nig (nix=nigs), niv, nivi;  $^3$  sence, sen;  $v\bar{\imath}$  (sing.),  $v\bar{\imath}ri$  (for  $v\bar{\imath}si$ , plur.);  $^4$  see 31, 1.
- 2.  $S\bar{v}s$ , and  $g_R\bar{v}s$ , cranc, the only u stems in this declension, are declined alike, except in the Dative and Ablative Plural, where  $gr\bar{u}s$  is regular: gruibus.
- 3. JÜPPITER, Jupiter, is thus declined: Jüppiter, Jovis, Jovi, Jovem, Jüppiter, Jove. Stems. Jüppiter and Jov.
- 4. LOCATIVE.—Many names of towns have a Locative Singular in ī or e denoting the place in which (45, 2). Thus:

Nom.	Karthāgŏ,	Carthage,	Tībur,	Tibur,
Gen.	Karthāginis, of	Carthage,	Tībur <b>is</b> ,	of Tibur,
Dat.	Karthagina, for	Carthage,	Tīburī,	for Tibur,
Acc.	Karthäginem,	Carthage,	Tībur,	Tibur,
Voc.	Karthāgŏ, O	Carthage,	Tībur,	O Tibur,
Abl.	Karthagine, from	Carthage,	Tībur <b>e</b> ,	from Tibur,
Loc.	Karthaginī or e, at	Carthage.	Tībur $\mathbf{i}$ or $\mathbf{e}$ ,	at Tibur.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>  $B\bar{o}s = bovs$ , bous;  $b\bar{o}bus$ ,  $b\bar{u}bus = bovibus$ , boubus.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Gen. and Dat. Sing .- vis, vi-are rare.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> For nigvi, from which nig is formed by first dropping i and then v; see 27, 36, 3, note 1.

<sup>4</sup> Vi is formed from visi by first dropping i and then s.

# 67. CASE-SUFFIXES AND CASE-ENDINGS.1

#### SINGULAR.

		DAM	O LIZZE,	
Co	NSONANT	STEMS.	I-Stems	
MASC. AN	р Гем.	NEUT.	MASC. AND FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	8,2	2	is, ēs, s	e,—2
Gen.	is	is	is	is
Dat.	ī	ī	ĩ	ī
Acc.	em	_	im, em	e,
Voc.	8		is, ēs, s	e,—
Abl.	e	e	ī, e	ī
		PLU	JRAL.	
Nom.	ěs	a	ès	ia
Gen.	um	um	ium	ium
Dat.	ibus	ibus	ibus	ibus
Acc.	ēs	3	ěs, īs	ia
Voc.	ēs	a	ēs	ia
Abl.	ibus	ibus	ibus	ibus

Note.—The following irregular case-endings occur: 3

- 1. E, for i, in the Dat. Sing .: 4 aere for aeri.
- 2. Eis, for īs, in the Acc. Plur. : cīveis for cīvīs, cīvēs.
- 3. For Greek Endings, see 68.

## GREEK NOUNS.

68. Most Greek nouns of the third declension are entirely regular, but a few retain certain peculiarities of the Greek. The following are examples:

	Lampas, F.,	Phryx, M. & F.,	Hērōs, M.,
	torch.	Phrygian.	hero.
		SINGULAR.	
Nom	lampa <b>s</b>	Phryx	hērō <b>s</b>
Gen.	lampadis, os	Phrygis, os	hērō <b>is</b>
Dat.	lampadī, i	Phrygī, i	hērō <b>ī, ī</b>
Acc.	lampad <b>em, a</b>	Phrygem, a	hērō <b>em, a</b>
Voc.	lampas	Phryx	hērōs
Abl.	lampad <b>e</b>	Phryg <b>e</b>	hêrô <b>e</b>

On the distinction between Case-Suffixes and Case-Endings, see 46, 1, and 47, note 3.

<sup>2</sup> The dash denotes that the case-ending is wanting.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> To these should be added for early Latin-1) us and es in the Gen. Sing.: hominus = hominus; satūtes = satūtits; 2) īd and ē in the Abl. Sing.: conventionīd = conventionēt; patrē = patre; 3) īs and eis in the Nom. Plur. of i-nouns: fineis, finīs = finēs. On the Case-Endings of the Third Declension in early Latin, see Wordsworth, pp. 63-73; Kühner, I., pp. 173-179.

<sup>4</sup> This e is generally long.

		PLURA	AL.	
Nom.	lampadēs, es	Phr	hērē <b>ēs</b> , <b>es</b>	
Gen.	lampadum	Phr	ygum	hērōum
Dat.	lampad <b>ibus</b>	Phr	ygibus	hērō <b>ibus</b>
Acc.	lampadēs, as	Phr	yg <b>ēs, as</b>	hērō <b>ēs, as</b>
l'oc.	lampadēs, es	Phrygēs, es		hērōēs, es
Abl.	lampad <b>ibus</b>	Phr	ygibus	hērō <b>ibus</b>
	Periclēs, M.,	Paris, M.,	Dīdō, r.,	Orpheus, M.,
	Pericles.	Paris.	Dido.	Orpheus.
		SINGUL	AR.1	•
Nom.	Pericl <b>ēs</b>	Paris	$D\bar{\imath}d\bar{o}$	Orpheus 2
Gen.	Periclis, I	Paridis, os	Dīdūs, ön <b>is</b>	Orph-cos, el, 1
	Periclī, i	Paridī, i	Dīdō, ōnī, ōni	Orph-eī, ei, ī, eō
Acc.	Pericl <b>em, ea, ēn</b>	(Parid <b>em, a</b> (Pari <b>m,</b> i <b>n</b>	Dīdō, ōn <b>em</b>	Orphea, eum
l'oc.	Pericl <b>ēs</b> , <b>es</b> , <b>ē</b>	Pari	$D\bar{\imath}d\bar{o}$	Orpheu
Abl.	Pericl <b>e</b>	Parid <b>e</b>	Dīdō, ōn <b>e</b>	Orphe $oldsymbol{ar{o}}$

- 1. Observe that these Paradigms fluctuate in certain cases—(1) between the Latin and the Greek forms: lampadis, os; lampadem, a; hêrŵs, as:—(2) between different declensions: Pericles, between Dec. I., Pericle, Pericle, Dec. II., Pericli (Gen.), and Dec. III., Periclis, etc.: Orphev, between Dec. II., Orphev, Orphev, etc., and Dec. III., Orpheos, etc.
- 2. Nouns in ys have Gen. yos, ys, Aec. ym, yn: Othrys, Othryos, Othrym, Othryn.
- 3. The Vocative Singular drops s—(1) in nouns in eus, ys, and in proper names in ās, Gen. antis: Atlās, Atlā:—(2) generally in nouns in is, and sometimes in other words: Pari.
- 4. In the Genitive Plural, the ending on occurs in a few titles of books: Metamorphises (title of a poem), Metamorphises.
- 5. In the Dative and Ablative Plural the ending si, before vowels sin, occurs in poetry: Troades, Troasin.
- 6. A few neuters used only in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative have os in the Singular and \$\ilde{e}\$ in the Planal: melos, melē, song.

# SYNOPSIS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

#### I. Nouns ending in a Vowel.

69. Nouns in a: 3	Genitive in atis:	Stem in at:
poema, poem,	počinatis,	poēmat.

<sup>1</sup> The Plural is of course generally wanting; see 130, 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Eu is a diphthong in the Nom, and Voc.; ei sometimes a diphthong in the Gen, and Dat.

<sup>3</sup> These are of Greek origin.

70. Nouns in e: Genitive in is: Stem in i: mare, sea, maris, mari.
 71. Nouns in ī: Genitive in is: Stem in i:

sināpī, mustard, sināpis, sināpi.

Note.—Many nouns in  $\bar{\imath}$  are indeclinable. Compounds of  $mel\bar{\imath}$  have itis in the Genitive:  $oxymel\bar{\imath}i, oxymeliis,$  oxymel.

72. Nouns in ō or o: Genitive in ōnis: Stem in ōn: leō, lion, leōnis,

EXCEPTIONS. —Genitive in—

- 1. onis: -most national names: Macedo, Macedonis, Macedonian.
- inis: <sup>2</sup>—Apollō; homö, man; nēmö, nobody; turbö, whirlwind; and nouns in do and go: grandō, grandinis, hail; virgō, virginis, maiden; except—harpagŏ, onis; ligŏ, onis; praedŏ, onis, also comedō, cūdō, mangō, spadŏ, ūnedŏ, ūdō.
- 3. nis:—carŏ, carnis (for carinis 2), flesh; see 61, 2, note 1.
- 4. ēnis: Aniō, Aniēnis, river Anio; Nēriō, Nēriēnis.
- 5. ūs:—a few Greek feminines: Dīdō, Dīdūs; see 68.
- 73. Nouns in y<sup>3</sup>: Gen. in yis (yos, ȳs): Stem in y: misy, copperas, misyis (yos, ȳs), misy.

# II. Nouns ending in a Mute or Liquid.

74. Nouns in c: ālēc, ālēcis, piekle; lāc, lāctis,4 milk.

**75.** Nouns in 1: Genitive in lis: Stem in 1: sol, sun, solis, solis,

Note.—Fel, fellis, gall; mel, mellis, honey; sal, salie, salt. On neuters in al, see 63.

76. Nouns in n: Genitive in nis: Stem in n:

paeān, paean, paeānis, paeān.

flūmen, stream, flūminis, flūmen, in.

Note 1.—Nouns in en have the variable radical vowel—e, i; see 60, 1, 2).

Note 2.—There are a few Greek words in on, Gen. in onis, ontis, St. in on, ont: addon, addons, nightingale; Xenophon, Xenophontis, Xenophon.

77. Nouns in r: Genitive in ris: Stem in r: career, prison, careeris, career.

- 1. Nouns in ār, ar: (1) ār, G. āris, St. āri: lār, lāris, house; (2) pār, paris, pair; fūr, farris, corn; hēpar, hēpatis, liver. For ar, G. āris, and ar, G. aris, see 63.
- Nouns in ter: Gen. in tris: pater, patris, father; except later, lateris, tile; iter, itineris, way; Jūppiter, Jovis; and Greek nouns: crātēr, crātēris, bowl.

<sup>1</sup> These are of Greek origin.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Stem in on, in, or oni, ini, ni; see 60, 1, 2).

Nouns in y are of Greek origin, and are often indeelinable.

<sup>4</sup> The only nouns in c.

Note.—Imber and names of months in ber have bris in the Genitive; imber, imbris, shower; September, September, September; see 62, IV., notes 1 and 2.

- 3. Nonns in or: G. ŏris, St. ŏr: pāstor, pāstoris, shepherd; but a few have G. oris, St. or: arbor, arboris, tree; acquor, sea; marmor, marble. But cor, cordis, heart.
- 4. Four in ur: G. oris, St. or: cbur, ivory; femur, thigh; jecur, liver; rōbur, strength; but femur has also feminis, and jecur, jecinoris, jecineri, and jecineris.
  - 78. Nouns in ut: Genitive in itis: Stem in ut, it: caput, head, capitis, caput, it.

#### III. NOUNS ENDING IN S.

79. Nouns in ās: Genitive in ātis: Stem in āt: aetās, aye, aetātis, aetāt.

EXCEPTIONS .- Genitive in

- 1. aris: -mās, maris, a male; -stem, mas, mari; see 31, 1.
- āsis: —vās, vāsis, vessel.¹
- 3. assis:—ās, assis, an as (a coin).
- 4. antis:--only masculine Greek nouns: adamās, antis, adamant.

Note.—Anas, duck, and neuter Greek nouns in as have atis: anas, anatis. Vas, surety, Arcas, Arcadian, and feminine Greek nouns in as have adis: vas, vadis, lampas, lampadis.<sup>2</sup>

80. Nouns in ē3: Genitive in is: Stem in i: 3 nūbēs, cloud, nūbis, nūbi.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. ēdis: hērēs, hērēdis, heir; mercēs, reward.
- 2. edis: -pēs, pedis, foot, and its compounds: compēs, edis, a fetter.
- 3. eris: Cerēs, Cereris.4
- ētis:—quiēs, rest, with compounds, inquiēs, requiēs, and a few Greek words: lebēs, tapēs.
- 5. etis: -abiēs, fir-tree; ariēs, ram; pariēs, wall.

Note.—Bis, bissis, two-thirds; acs, aeris,4 copper; praes, praedis, surety.

81. Nouns in es: Genitive in itis: Stem in et, it: mîles, soldier, mîlitis, mîlet, it.

EXCEPTIONS .- Genitive in

- 1. etis: -interpres, interpreter; segs, crop; teges, covering.
- 2. idis: -obses, hostage; pracses, president; see 57, 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Vas is the only stem in s which does not change s to r between two vowels; see 61, 1, 3).

<sup>2</sup> Greek nonns sometimes have ados for adis.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> But see 64, 1.

<sup>4</sup> See 61, 1, 3).

82. Nouns in is: Genitive in is: Stem in i: avis. bird. avis.

Exceptions.—Genitive in

- eris:—cinis, cincris, ashes; cucumis, cucumber; pulvis, dust; vōmis, ploughshare.
- idis:—capis, eup; cassis, helmet; cuspis, spear; lapis, stone; promulsis, antepast, and a few Greek words: as tyrannis, idis, tyranny. Sometimes ibis, and tigris.
- 3. inis:—pollis or pollen, flour; sanguis, blood.

Note.—Glīs, glīris, dormouse; līs, lītis, strife; sēmis, sēmissis, half an as; Dīs, Dītis; Quirīs, Quirītis; Samnīs, Samnītis.

83. Nouns in ōs: Genitive in ōris: Stem in ōs: mōs, custom, mōris, mōs.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- ōtis:—cōs, cōtis, whetstone; dōs, dowry; nepōs, grandson; saccrdōs, priest: and a few Greek words.
- 2. odis: -cūstos, cūstodis, guardian; see 36, 2.
- ōis:—a few masculine Greek nouns: hērōs, hero; Mīnōs, Trōs.

Note.—Arbās or arbor, arboris, tree; os, ossis, bone; bās, bovis, ox; see 66.

84. Nouns in ūs, Gen. in ūris or ūtis: stem in ūs or ūt.

- 1.  $\bar{\mathbf{uris}} := cr\bar{u}s$ , leg;  $j\bar{u}s$ , right;  $j\bar{u}s$ , soup;  $m\bar{u}s$ , mouse;  $p\bar{u}s$ , pus;  $r\bar{u}s$ , country;  $t\bar{u}s$  ( $th\bar{u}s$ ), incense;  $tell\bar{u}s$ , earth.
- ūtis: juventūs, youth; salūs, safety; senectūs, old age; servitūs, servitude; virtūs, virtue; see 36, 2.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. ūdis:-incūs, anvil; palūs, marsh; subscūs, dovetail.
- 2. uis:—grūs, gruis, erane; sūs, swine.
  - 3. untis:—a few Greek names of places: Trapezūs, untis.
  - odis:—Greek compounds in pūs: tripūs, tripodis, tripod.

Note.—Fraus, fraudis, fraud; laus, laudis, praise; see 64, 2, 2), foot-note. For Greek nous in cus, see 68.

85. Nouns in us: Gen. in eris or oris: stem in os.

eris:—latus, lateris, side: stem, latos.<sup>3</sup> So also: acus, focdus, fūnus, genus, glomus, mūnus, olus, onus, opus, pondus, rūdus, seclus, sīdus, ulcus, vellus, Venus, viscus, vulnus.

2. oris:—corpus, corporis, body: stem, corpos.3 So also decus, dēdecus,

<sup>1</sup> Stem cinis, ciner for cines with variable vowel i, e; see 24, 1; 31, 1; and 57, 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Greek nonns sometimes have idos or even ios for idis; Salamis has Salaminis; Simois, Simoentis.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Sec 61, 1, foot-note.

favinus, faenus, frigus, lepus, litus, nemus, pectus, pecus, penus, pignus, stercus, tempus, terqus.

Note.—Pecus, pecudis, a head of eattle; Ligus, Liguris, Ligurian; see 31.

86. Nouns in ys: 1 Genitive in yis, yos, ȳs: Stem in y: Othrys, Othrys, Othrys,

87. Nouns in bs: Genitive in bis: Stem in bi: 2
urbs, city, urbis, urbi.

88. Nouns in ms: Genitive in mis: Stem in m: hiems, winter, hiems, hiems,

89. Nouns in eps: Genitive in ipis: Stem in ep, ip. princeps, prince, principis, princep, ip.

Note.—But auceps, aucupis, fowler. Other nonns in ps retain the stem-vowel unchanged; merops, meropis, bee-eater. Gryps, griffin, has gryphis.

90. Nouns in s after 1, n, or r: Gen. in tis: Stem in ti:

puls, broth,
mens, mind,
ars, art,
pultis,
mentis,
mentis,
artis,
arti.

Note.—Fröns, frondis, leaf; glāns, glandis, aeorn; jūglāns, jūglandis, walnut; see  $\mathbf{64}, 2$ .

## IV. Nouns Ending in X.

91. Nouns in  $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{x}$ : Genitive in  $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{c}$ is: Stem in  $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{c}$ :

Note. - Fax, facis, torch; so also a few Greek nouns. Astyanax, actis; so a few Greek names of men.

92. Nouns in ex: Genitive in ecis or egis: Stem in ec, eg:

ēcis:—ālēx, pickle; vervēx, wether.

2. **ēgis**:  $-l\bar{e}x$ , law;  $r\bar{e}x$ , king, and their compounds.

93. Nouns in ex: Genitive in icis: Stem in ic, ec: jūdex, judge, jūdicis, jūdic, ec.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

ecis:—nex, murder; fēnisex, mower; (prex), precis, prayer.

2. egis:-grex, flock; aquilex, water-inspector.

3. igis: - rēmex, rēmigis, rower; see 24, 1.

Note.—Faex, faecis, lees; senex, senis, old man (66); supellex, supellectilis, farniture.

94. Nouns in ix: Genitive in icis: Stem in ic: rādix, root, rādieis, rādie.

<sup>1</sup> These are of Greek origin; a few of them have ydis: chlamys, chlamydis, cloak.

Dissyllables have the stem in b.

<sup>3</sup> Dissyllables in ns have the stem in t.

95. Nouns in ix: Genitive in icis: Stem in ic:

ealix, cup, ealicis, ealie.

Note.—Nix, niris (66), snow; strix, strigis, screech-owl; a few Gallic names also have the Genitive in igis: Dumnorix, Orgētorix.

96. Nouns in ōx or ox: vōx, vōcis, voice; nox, noclis, night.

Note.—'There are also a few national names in ox, Gen. in ocis or ogis: Cappador, Cappadoris; Allobrox, Allobrogis.

97. Nouns in ux: Genitive in ucis: Stem in uc:

dux, leader, dueis, d

Note 1.—L-x, lūcis, light; Pollūx, Pollūcis, Pollux; frūx, frūgis, fruit.

Note 2.—Greek nouns in  $\bar{y}x$  and yx are variously declined: Eryx, Eryx; Eryx

98. Nouns in x after n or r: Genitive in cis: Stem in ci:
arx. cita.lel. arcis. arcis.

Note 1 .- Conjung or conjux, conjugis, spouse.

Note 2.—Most nouns in x preceded by n are of Greek origin: lynx, lyncis, lynx; phalanx, phalangis, phalanx.

#### GENDER IN THIRD DECLENSION.

- 99. Nouns in the third declension ending in
- ŏ, or, ōs, er, and in ēs and es increasing in the Genitive, are masculine: sermō, discourse; dolor, pain; mōs, custom; agger, mound; pēs, Genitive pedis, foot.
  - 100. Nouns in Ö are masculine, except the Feminines, viz. :
  - Nouns in ŏ, Gen. inis, except cardŏ, ōrdŏ, turbŏ, masc., cupīdŏ and margŏ, masc. or fem.
  - 2. Carŏ, flesh, and the Greek Argō, ēchō, echo.
  - Most abstract and collective nouns in i\u00e3: rati\u00f6, reason; conti\u00f6, an assembly.
    - 101. Nouns in OR are masculine, except—
    - The Feminine:—arbor, tree.
  - 2. The Neuters:—ador, spelt; acquor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.
  - 102. Nouns in OS are masculine, except—
  - 1. The Feminines:—arbos, tree; cos, whetstone; dos, dowry; ēos, dawn.
  - 2. The Neuter: -- ōs, mouth.

Note.—Os, bone, and a few Greek words in os are neuter: chaos, chaos.

103. Nouns in ER are masculine, except—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> That is, having more syllables in the Genitive than in the Nominative.

- 1. The Feminine:—linter, boat (sometimes mase.).
- The Neuters:—(1) cadāver, corpse; iter, way; tūber, tumor; ūber, udder; vēr, spring; verber, scourge;—(2) botanical names in ex, Gen. eris: acer, maple-tree; pāpāver, poppy.
- 104. Nonns in **ĒS** and **ES** increasing in the Genitive are masculine, except—
- The Feminines:—compēs, fetter; mereēs, reward; merges, sheaf; quiēs, rest (with its compounds); seges, crop; teges, mat; sometimes āles, bird, and quadrupēs, quadruped.
- 2. The Neuter: -acs, copper.
- 105. Nouns of the third declension ending in
- ās, as, is, ys, x, in ēs not increasing in the Genitive, and in s preceded by a consonant,

are feminine:  $aet\bar{a}s$ , age;  $n\bar{a}vis$ , ship; chlamys, cloak;  $p\bar{a}x$ , peace;  $n\bar{u}b\bar{e}s$ , cloud; urbs, city.

- 106. Nouns in AS and AS are feminine, except-
- The Masculines:—ās, an as (a coin), vas, surety, and Greek nouns in as, Gen. autis.
- 2. The Neuters: vās, vessel, and Greek nouns in as, Gen. atis.
- 107. Nouns in IS and YS are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
- Nouns in ālis, ollis, cis, mis, nis, guis, quis: nātālis, birthday; ignis, fire; sanguis, blood. But a few of these are occasionally feminine: canis, annis, cinis, finis, anguis, torquis.
- Axis, axle; būris, plough-tail; callis, path; ¹ ēnsis, sword; lapis, stone; mēnsis, month; orbis, circle; postis, post; pulvis, dust; sentis, brier; torris, brand; vectis, lever; and a few others.
- 3. Names of mountains in ys: Otherys.
- 108. Nouns in X are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
- 1. Greek masculines: corax, raven; thorax, cuirass.
- 2. Nouns in ex and unx; except the feminines: faex, forfex, nex, (prec), supellex.
- 3. Calix, cup; fornix, arch; phoenix; trādux, vine-layer, and a few nouns in yx.
  - 4. Sometimes: calx, heel; calx, lime; lynx, lynx.
- 109. Nouns in **£S** not increasing in the Genitive are feminine, except the *Masculines*, viz.:

Nouns whose gender is determined by Signification (42) may be exceptions to these rules for gender as determined by Entings. Callis is sometimes feminine.

Acīnacēs, cimeter; sometimes  $palumb\bar{e}s$ , dove; and  $v \neq m\bar{e}s$ , thorn-bush. Note.—For Greek nouns in es, see 111, note.

- 110. Nouns in S PRECEDED BY A CONSONANT are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
  - Dēns, tooth; föns, fountain; möns, mountain; pöns, bridge; generally adeps, fat, and rudens, cable.
  - Some nouns in ns, originally adjectives or participles with a masculine noun understood: oriēns (sōl), east; confluens (amnis), confluence; tridēns (raster), trident; quadrāns (ās), quarter.
  - 3. Chalybs, steel; hydrops, dropsy, and a few other Greek words.
  - Sometimes: forceps, forceps; scrpens, serpent; stirps, stock. Animans, animal, is masculine, feminine, or neuter.
  - 111. Nouns of the third declension ending in

# a, e, ī, y, c, l, n, t, ār, ar, ur, ūs, and us

are neuter: poēma, poem; mare, sea; lāc, milk; animal, animal; carmen, song; caput, head; corpus, body.

Note. - A few Greek nouns in es are also neuter: cacolthes, desire, passion.

- 112. Nouns in  $\Sigma$ ,  $\bar{\Lambda}$ **R**, and  $\Lambda$ **R** are neuter, except the *Masculines*, viz.:  $M\bar{u}gil$ , mullet;  $s\bar{u}l$ , salt;  $s\bar{c}l$ , sun;  $l\bar{u}r$ , hearth; salar, trout.
- 113. Nouns in N are neuter, except-
- The Masculines:—pcc(en, comb; rēn, kidney; liēn, spleen; and Greek masculines in ān, ōn, in, on: pacān, pacan; canōn, rule,
- The Feminines:—aēdōn, nightingale; aleyōn (haleyōn), kingfisher;
   teōn, image; sindōn, muslin.
- 114. Nouns in **UR** are neuter, except the *Masculines*, viz.: Furfur, bran; turtur, turtle-dove; vultur, vulture.
- 115. Nouns in US and US are neuter, except-
- 1. The Masculines:—lepus, hare; mūs, mouse; and Greek nouns in pūs.
- The Feminines:—tellūs, earth; fraus, fraud; laus, praise; and nouns in ūs, Gen. ūtis or ūdis: virtūs, virtue; palūs, marsh.

# FOURTH DECLENSION: U NOUNS.

116. Nouns of the fourth declension end in

us-masculine; ū-neuter.

They are declined as follows:

<sup>1</sup> See foot-note, page 47. Sal is sometimes neuter in the singular.

#### Früctus, fruit. Cornū, horn.

		SINGULAR.	CASE-ENDINGS.	
Nom.	früct <b>us</b>	eorn <b>a</b>	us	ū
Gen.	früct <b>üs</b>	corn <b>ūs</b>	$\bar{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{s}$	ūs
Dat.	frūct <b>uī, ū</b>	cornī	uī, ū ¹	ū
Acc.	früctum	corn <b>u</b> -	um	ũ
Voc.	früctus	corn <b>ŭ</b>	us	ū
Abl.	früct <b>ū</b>	corn <b>ū</b>	ū	ũ
		PLURAL.		3.
Nom.	früct <b>üs</b>	cornua	ūs	ua
Gen.	früctmum	cornttm	uum	uum
Dat.	früct <b>ibus</b>	cornibus	ibus (ubus)	ibus (ubus)
Acc.	früct <b>üs</b>	cornua	ūs	ua
Voc.	früct <b>üs</b>	eornua	ūs	ua
Abl.	früct <b>ibus</b>	cornibus	ibus (ubus)	ibus (ubus)

- 1. The Stem in hours of the fourth declension ends in u: frūctu, cornu,
- 2. The Case-Endings here given contain the characteristic **u**, weakened to *i* in *ibus*, but retained in *ubus*; see 22.
  - 117. The following IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS occur: 2
  - 1. Ubus for ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural-
  - 1) Regularly in acus, needle; arcus, bow; and tribus, tribe.
- 2) Often in artus, joint; lacus, lake; partus, birth; portus, harbor; specus, cave; and verū, spit.
  - 3) Occasionally in a few other words, as genu, knee; tonitrus, thunder, etc.
- 2. Uis, the uncontracted form for as, in the Genitive: fractuis for fractus.
  - 3. Uos, an old form 5 of the Genitive ending: senātuos, 6 of the senate.
- 118. Nouns in us are masculine, those in  $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$  are neuter, but the following in us are—

¹ Thus uī is contracted into ū: frāctuī, frāctū.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> To these should be added the rare endings nd for ū in the Abl. Sing,, uus for ūs in the Gen. Sing,, and uūs for ūs in the Nom., Ace., and Voc. Pl. See Wordsworth, pp. 60-62.

<sup>3</sup> Generally plural, limbs.

<sup>4</sup> It has been already mentioned (47, note 1) that the five declensions are only five varieties of one general system of inflection. The close relationship between the third declension and the fourth will be seen by comparing the declension of fractus, a u-noun of the fourth, with that of  $gr\bar{u}s$  (66, 2), a u-noun of the third. In fact, if the old Genitive ending uis had not been contracted into  $\bar{u}s$ , there would have been no fourth declension whatever. All u-nouns would have belonged to the third declension.

<sup>6</sup> Compare the Greek Genitive in voς: iχθύς, iχθύος, fish.

<sup>6</sup> This was first weakened to senātuis (22), and then contracted to senātās (23, 2), the classical form.

Feminine by Exception:—(1) acus, needle; colus, distaff; domus, house; manus, hand; porticus, portico; tribus, tribe;—(2) Īdūs, Ides; Quinquūtrūs, feast of Minerva; generally penus, store, when of this declension; rarely specus, den;—(3) see 42, II.

Note.—The only neuter nouns in common use are cornū, genū, and verū.1

- 119. Second and Fourth Declensions.—Some nouns are partly of the fourth declension and partly of the second.
- 1. Domus, r., house, has a Locative form domī, at home, and is otherwise declined as follows:<sup>2</sup>

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
Nom. domus	domūs	
Gen. domūs	domuum, domõrum	
Dat. domuī (domō)	domibus	
Acc. domum	domōs, domūs	
Voc. domus	domūs	
Abl. domô (domů)	domibus	

- 2. Certain names of trees in us, as cupressus, fīcus, laurus, pīnus, though generally of Deel. II., sometimes take those cases of the fourth which end in ūs, us, and ū: N. laurus, G. laurūs, D. laurō, A. laurum, V. laurus, A. laurū, etc. So also colus, distaff.
- 3. A few nouns, especially senātus, senate, and tumultus, tumult, though regularly of Decl. IV., sometimes take the Genitive ending i of the second; senāti, tumulti.
  - 4. Quercus, oak, regularly of Decl. IV., has quercorum in the Gen. Plur.

# FIFTH DECLENSION: E NOUNS.

120. Nouns of the fifth declension end in **ēs**—feminine, and are declined as follows:

	Dies, day.	Rēs, thing.	
		SINGULAR.	Case-Endings.
Nom.	di <b>ēs</b>	r <b>ës</b>	ēs
Gen.	di <b>ēī</b> or di <b>ē</b>	r <b>ēī</b> or r <b>ē</b>	ĕī, ē
Dat.	$\mathrm{di}\mathbf{ar{e}}\mathbf{ar{i}}$ or $\mathrm{di}\mathbf{ar{e}}$	r <b>ēī</b> or r <b>ē</b>	ěī, ē
Acc.	di <b>em</b>	rem	em
Voc.	diēs	r <b>ēs</b>	ēs
Abl.	di€	r <b>ē</b>	ē

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> But neuter forms occur in certain cases of other words. Thus, Dat. pecuī, Abl. pecū, Nom., Acc., and Voc. Pl. pecuā, from obsolete pecū, eattle; also artua from artus; ossua from obsolete ossū, bone; specua from specus.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Combining forms of the second declension with those of the fourth.

		PLURAL.	CASE-ENDINGS.
Nom.	di <b>ēs</b>	rēs	ēs
Gen.	di <b>ērum</b>	rērum	ērum
Dat.	di <b>ēbus</b>	rēbus	ēbus
Mcc.	di <b>ēs</b>	rēs	ës
Voc.	diēs	rēs	ēs
Abl.	di <b>ēbus</b>	rēbus	ēbus

- 1. The Stem of nouns of the fifth declension ends in  $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ :  $di\bar{e}$ ,  $r\bar{e}$ .
- 2. The Case-Endings here given contain the characteristic  $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ , which appears in all the cases. It is shortened (1) generally in the ending  $\bar{\epsilon}\bar{\imath}$ , when preceded by a consonant, and (2) regularly in the ending em.

Note.—Traces of a Locative in  $\tilde{\epsilon}$  are preserved in certain phrases found in early Latin, as  $di\tilde{\epsilon}$  septim $\tilde{\epsilon}$ , on the seventh day;  $di\tilde{\epsilon}$   $crastin\tilde{\epsilon}$ , on the morrow;  $di\tilde{\epsilon}$   $pr\tilde{\epsilon}xim\tilde{\epsilon}$ , on the next day.  $Cotidi\tilde{\epsilon}$ ,  $hodi\tilde{\epsilon}$ ,  $pr(di\tilde{\epsilon})$ , and the like are doubtless Locatives in origin.

#### 121. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur:

- Ī or eī for čī in the Gen. and Dat.: aciī for aciēī, of sharpness;
   dicī for dieī; reī for rēī; perniciī for perniciēī, of destruction.
  - 2. Es in the Gen. in early Latin: dies, of a day; rabies, of madness.

# 122. Defective.—Nouns of this declension want the plural, except 2-

- 1. Dies and res, complete in all their parts.
- 2. Acies, sharpness; effigies, image; facies, face; series, series; species, appearance; spes, hope, used in the Sing., and in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Plur.
- 3. Eluvies, used in the Sing. and in the Nom. Plur., and glacies in the Sing. and in the Acc. Plur.

# 123. GENDER.-Nouns of the fifth declension are feminine-

Excert dies, day, and meridies, midday, masculine, though dies is sometimes feminine in the singular, especially when it means time.

# 124. GENERAL TABLE OF GENDER.

# I. Gender independent of ending. Common to all declensions.

<sup>1</sup> Originally most e-stems appear to have been either a-stems or s-stems. Thus: 1) Most stems in  $i\tilde{e}$  are modified from  $i\tilde{e}:m\tilde{u}teri\tilde{e},m\tilde{u}teri\tilde{e},$  Nom.  $m\tilde{u}teri\tilde{e}:s$ , material; see 25, 1, note, with foot-note 6. In this class of words the Gen, and Dat. Sing are formed from the stem in  $i\tilde{e}$ , not from that in  $i\tilde{e}s:m\tilde{u}teriae$ , not  $m\tilde{u}teri\tilde{e}i$ . 2)  $D\tilde{u}\tilde{e}s$ ,  $fd\tilde{e}s$ ,  $p\tilde{e}b\tilde{e}s$ , and  $sp\tilde{e}s$  appear to have been s-stems, modified to  $\tilde{e}$ -stems, as many s-stems in the third declension were modified to i-stems; see 62, L., 1, foot-note.

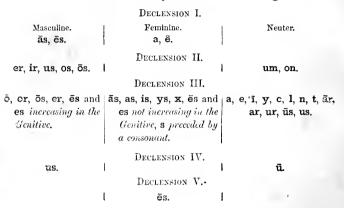
<sup>2</sup> A few plural forms in addition to those here given are sometimes cited, but seem not to occur in writers of the classical period.

<sup>3</sup> In early Latin spērēs occurs in the Nom. and Acc. Plur., formed from spēs treated as a stem in s. Thus: spēs, spēsēs, spērēs (31, 1).

<sup>4</sup> For exceptions, see 43.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	
Names of Males, of	Names of Females, of	INDECLINABLE NOUNS, 1 IN-	
RIVERS, WINDS, and	Countries, Towns, Isl-	FINITIVES, and CLAUSES	
Months.	ANDS, and TREES.	used as Nouns.	

# II. Gender determined by Nominative ending.2



#### COMPOUND NOUNS.

- 125. Compounds present in general no peculiarities of declension. But—
- 1. If two nominatives unite, they are both declined:  $\sqrt[3]{respublica} = respublica$ , republie, the public thing;  $j\bar{u}sj\bar{u}randum = j\bar{u}sj\bar{u}randum$ , oath.
- 2. If a nominative unites with an oblique case, only the nominative is declined: \*\* paterfamilia\* = pater familia\* (49, 1), or pater familia\*, the father of a family.

# 126. Paradigms.

~ .	SINGULAR.	
Nom. respublica Gen. respublicae	jūsjūrandum jūrisjūrandī	paterfamiliās patrisfamiliās
<i>Dat.</i> rěipublicae	jūrījūrandō	patrīsammas patrīfamiliās
Acc. rempüblicam	jūsjūrandum	patremfamiliās
l'oc. respublica	jūsjūrandum	paterfamiliās —
Abl. rēpūblieā	jūrejūrandō	patrefamiliās

Except names of persons.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> For exceptions, see under the several declensions,

<sup>3</sup> Words thus formed, however, are not compounds in the strict sense of the term; see 340, I., note.

PLURAL,				
Nom. rēspūblicae	jūrajūranda	patrēsfamiliās		
Gen. rērumpūblicārum		patrumfamiliās		
Dat. rēbuspūblieis		patribustamiliās		
Acc. respublicas	jūrayūranda	patrēsfamiliās		
Voc. respublicae	jūrajūranda	patrēsfamiliās		
Att. rebuspublicis		patribusfamiliās		

Note 1.—The parts which compose these and similar words are often and perhaps more correctly written separately:  $r.s.p\bar{u}b/ica$ ; pater famili is or familiae.

Note 2-Pater familiis sometimes has familiarum in the plural: patresfamiliarum.

#### IRREGULAR NOUNS.

- 127. Irregular nouns may be divided into four classes:
- I. INDECLINABLE NOUNS have but one form for all cases.
- H. Defective Nouns want certain parts.
- III. Heteroclites (heteroclita 1) are partly of one declension and partly of another.
- IV. Heterogeneous Nouns (helerogeneo) are partly of one gender and partly of another.

#### I. INDECLINABLE NOUNS.

- 128. The Latin has but few indeclinable nouns. The following are the most important:
  - 1. The letters of the alphabet, a, b, c, alpha, beta, etc.
  - 2. Foreign words: Jācob, Iliberi; though foreign words often are declined.

# II. DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

- 129. Nouns may be defective in Number, in Case, or in both Number and Case.
- 130. PLURAL WANTING.—Many nouns from the nature of their signification want the plural: Rōma, Rome; jūstitia, justice; aurum, gold; jamēs, hunger; sanquis, blood.
  - 1. The principal nouns of this class are:
  - 1) Most names of persons and places: Cicero, Roma.
  - 2) Abstract Nouns: fides, faith; justice, justice.
  - 3) Names of materials: aurum, gold; ferrum, iron.
- 4) A few others: meridis, midday; specimen, example; supeller, furniture; ver, spring; vespera, evening, etc.
- 2. Proper names admit the plural to designate families, classes: names of materials, to designate pieces of the material or articles made of it; and abstract nouns, to designate instances, or kinds, of the quality: Scipionis, the Scipion; aera, vessels of copper; araritiae, instances of avarice; odia, hatreds.
  - 8. In the poets, the plural of abstracts occurs in the sense of the singular.  $\gamma$

<sup>1</sup> From crepos, another, and alious, inflection, l. e., of different declensions.

<sup>2</sup> From exepos, another, and yevos, gender, i. e., of different genders.

# 131. Singular wanting.—Many nouns want the singular.

1. The most important of these are:

1) Certain personal appellatives applicable to classes: mājorēs, forefathers; posteri, descendants; gemini, twins; liberi, children.

2) Many names of cities: Athenae, Athens; Thebae, Thebes; Delphi, Delphi.

3) Many names of festivals: Bacchānālia, Olympia, Sāturnālia,

4) Arma, arms; divitiae, riches; exsequiae, funeral rites; exuviae, spoils; Idus, Ides; indutiae, truce; insidiae, ambuscade; manes, shades of the dead; mīnae, threats; moenia, walls; mūnia, duties; nūptiae, nuptials; reliquiae, remains.

2. An individual member of a class designated by these plurals may be denoted by unus ex with the plural: unus ex liberis, one of the children, or a child.

Note.—The plural in names of cities may have reference to the several parts of the city, especially as ancient cities were often made up of separate villages. So in the names of festivals, the plural may refer to the various games and exercises which together constituted the festival.

132. PLURAL WITH CHANGE OF MEANING.—Some nouns have one signification in the singular and another in the plural. Thus:

#### SINGULAR.

Aedes, temple: Auxilium, help : Career, prison, barrier: Castrum, castle, hut; Comitium, name of a part of the Roman forum: Copia, plenty, force : Facultas, ability: Finis, end: Fortuna, fortune: Grātia, gratitude, favor : Hortus, garden: Impedimentum, hindrance: Littera, letter of alphabet;

Mos, custom: Nātālis (dies), birth-day: Opera, work, service; Pars, part: Rostrum, beak of ship;

Ludus, play, sport:

Sal, salt;

#### PLUBAL.

aedes, (1) temples, (2) a house.1 auxilia, auxiliaries. carceres, barriers of a race-course. castra, camp.

comitia, the assembly held in the comitium.

eopiae, (1) stores, (2) troops. facultātēs, wealth, means, fines, borders, territory. fortunae, possessions, wealth. grātiae, thanks,

hortī, (1) gardens, (2) pleasure-grounds. impedimenta, (1) hindrances, (2) baggage. litterae, (1) letters of alphabet, (2) epistle, writing, letters, literature.

ludi, (1) plays, (2) public spectacle.

mores, manners, character.

nātālēs, pedigree, parentage.

operae, workmen.

partes, (1) parts, (2) a party.

rostra, (1) beaks, (2) the rostra or tribune in Rome (adorned with beaks).

sales. witty sayings.

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  Aedēs and some other words in this list, it will be observed, have in the plural two significations, one corresponding to that of the singular, and the other distinct from it.

- 133. Defective in Case.—Some nouns are defective in case:
- 1. In the Nom., Dat., and Voc. Sing.: —, opis, —, opem, —, ope, help; —, ricis, 1 —, ricem, —, rice, change.
  - 2. In the Nom., Gen., and Voc. Sing.: ---, preci, precem, ---, prece, prayer.
- 3. In the Nom. and Voc. Sing.: —, dapis, dapī, dapēm, —, dapē, food; —, frūgis, frūgēm, —, frūgē, fruit.
  - 4. In the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur.: Most nouns of the fifth Deel.; see 122.

Note.—Many neuters are also defective in the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur.: fūr., fel., mel., pūs., rūs., tūs., etc., especially Greek neuters in os, which want these cases also in the singular: epos., melos; also a few nouns of Decl. IV.: metus, situs, etc.

- 5. In the Gen. Plur.: many nouns otherwise entire, especially monosyllables: nex, pāx, pix; cor, cōs, rōs; sāl, sōl, lūx.
- 134. Number and Case.—Some nouns want one entire number and certain cases of the other. The following forms occur: fors, forte, chance; luēs, luen, lue, pestilence; diciōnis, diciōnī, diciōnem, diciōne, sway. Fās, right, and nefās, wrong, are used in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Sing.; instar, likeness, nihil, nothing, and opus, need, in the Nom. and Acc.; secus, sex, in the Acc. only. Many verbal nouns in ū and a few other words have only the Ablative Singular: jussū, by order; mandātū, by command; rogūtū, by request; sponte, by choice, etc.

#### HI. HETEROCLITES.

- 135. Of DECLENSIONS II. and IV. are a few nouns in us; see 119.
- 136. Of Declensions II. and III. are-
- 1. Jügerum, an acre; generally of the second Deel in the Sing., and of the third in the Plur.: jügerum, jügeri; plural, jügera, jügerum, jügeribus.
- 2. Vās, a vessel; of the third Deel. in the Sing. and of the second in the Plur.: vās, vāsis; plural, vāsa, vāsörum.
- 3. Plural names of festivals in ālia: Bacchānālia, Sāturnālia; which are regularly of the third Decl., but sometimes form the Gen. Plur. in ārum of the second. Ancīle, a shield, and a few other words have the same peculiarity.
  - 137. Of Declessions III. and V. are-
- 1. Requies, rest; which is regularly of the third Deel., but also takes the forms requiem and requie of the fifth.
- 2. Famès, hunger; regularly of the third Deel., except in the Ablative, famè, of the fifth (not fame, of the third).
- 138. Forms in ia and ies.—Many words of four syllables have one form in ia of Deel. I., and one in ies of Deel. V.: luxuria, luxuries, luxury; māteria, māteries, material.
- 139. Forms in us and um.—Many nouns derived from verbs have one form in us of Decl. IV., and one in um of Decl. II.: cōnātus, cōnātum, attempt; ēventus, ēventum, event.

<sup>1</sup> Defective also in the Gen. Plur.

140. Many words which have but one approved form in prose, admit another in poetry: juventūs (ūtis), youth; poetic, juventū (ae): sencetūs (ūtis), old age; poetic, senceta (ae): paupertās (ūtis), poverty; poetic, paupertās (ūtis)

IV. HETEROGENEOUS Nouns.

141. MASCULINE AND NEUTER.—Some masculines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

Joeus, m., jest; plural, joeī, m., joer, n.

Locus, m., place; plural, loci, m., topics, loca, n., places.

142. Feminine and Neuter.—Some *jeminines* take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

Carbasus, f., linen; plural, carbasī, f., carbasa, n.

Margarīta, f., pearl; plural, margarītae, f., margarīta, n.

Ostrea, f., oyster; plural, ostreae, f., ostrea, n.

143 NEUTER AND MASCULINE OR FEMILINE.—Some neuters tal

143. NEUTER AND MASCULINE OR FEMININE.—Some neuters take in the plural a different gender. Thus:

1. Some neuters become masculine in the plural:

Caelum, n., heaven; plural, caeli, m.

Some neuters generally become masculine in the plural, but sometimes remain neuter;

Frēnum, n., bridle; plural, frēnī, m., frēna, n. Rāstrum, n., rake; plural, rāstrī, m., rāstra, n.

3. Some neuters become feminine in the plural:

Epulum, n., feast; plural, epulae, f.

144. FORMS IN US AND UM.—Some nouns of the second declension have one form in us masculine, and one in um neuter: e<sup>t</sup>ipcus, elipeum, shield; commentarius, commentarium, commentary.

145. HETEROGENEOUS HETEROCLITES.—Some heteroclites are also heterogeneous: cōnātus (ūs), cōnātum (ī), effort; menda (ae), mendum (ī), fault.

# CHAPTER II.

# ADJECTIVES.

146. The adjective is the part of speech which is used to qualify nouns: bonus, good; māgnus, great.

Note.—The form of the adjective in Latin depends in part upon the gender of the noun which it qualifies: bonus puer, a good boy; bona puella, a good girl; bonum templum, a good temple. Thus, in the Nom. Sing., bonus is the form of the adjective when used with masculine nouns, bona with feminine, and bonum with neuter.

147. Some adjectives are partly of the first declension and partly of the second, while all the rest are entirely of the third declension.

FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS: A AND O STEMS.

148. Bonus, good.1		
Masc	SINGULAR. Fem.	NEUT.
Nom. bonus	bong	bonuerra
Gen. bon I	bonae	bon <b>ī</b>
Dat. bonō	bonate	bon <b>ō</b>
Acc. bonum	bonanna	bonum
Voc. bone	bona	bonuna
$Abl.$ bon $oldsymbol{ar{o}}$	bon <b>ā</b> t	$bonar{oldsymbol{o}}$
	PLURAL.	
Nom. bon I	bonae	bona
Gen. bonorum	bonārum	bon <b>ërum</b>
Dat. bonEs	bon <b>īs</b>	bonIs
Acc. bonos	bon <b>ās</b>	bon <b>a</b>
Voc. bonI	bonae	bona
Abl. bon's	bonTs	bon <b>Ts</b>
149. Liber, free.2	SINGULAR.	
Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom. liber	līber <b>a</b>	liber <b>um</b>
Cen. līber <b>ī</b>	līber <b>a e</b>	līber <b>ī</b>
Dat. liberō	lîber <b>a e</b>	līber <b>ō</b>
Acc. līberuzm	līber <b>am</b>	lîber <b>um</b>
Voc. līber	līber <b>a</b>	līber <b>um</b>
Abl. līberā	līber <b>ā</b>	lîber <b>ō</b>
	PLURAL.	
Nom. liber I	līber <b>ae</b>	līber <b>a</b>
Gen. līber <b>ōrum</b>	līber <b>ārum</b>	līber <b>ōrum</b>
Dat. liberis	līber <b>īs</b>	līber <b>īs</b>
Acc. liberos	līber <b>ās</b>	līber <b>a</b>
Voc. līberī	līber <b>a e</b>	līber <b>a</b>
Abl. liber is	līber <b>īs</b>	līber <b>īs</b>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Boxus is declined in the Masc, like *servus* of Decl. II. (51), in the Fem. like *minsa* of Decl. I. (48), and in the Neut. Eke *templum* of Decl. II. (51). The stems are *bono* in the Masc, and Neut., and *bonā* in the Fem.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Liber is declined in the Masc. like puer (51), and in the Fem. and Neut. like bonus.

# 150. Aeger, sick.1

,	SINGULAR.	
MASC.	Fem.	NEUT.
Nom. aeger	aegr <b>a</b>	aegrum
Gen. aegr <b>ī</b>	aegr <b>ae</b>	aegr <b>ī</b>
$Dat$ , $aegroldsymbol{ar{o}}$	aegr <b>ae</b>	aegr <b>ō</b>
Aec. aegrum	aegr <b>am</b>	aegr <b>um</b>
Vcc. aeger	aegr <b>a</b>	aegr <b>um</b>
$Abl.$ $\operatorname{aegr}ar{oldsymbol{o}}$	aegr <b>ā</b>	$\operatorname{aegr}oldsymbol{ar{o}}$
	PLURAL.	
Nom. aegr <b>ī</b>	aegr <b>ae</b>	aegra
Gen. aegr <b>õrum</b>	aegr <b>ārum</b>	aegr <b>örum</b>
Dat. aegr <b>īs</b>	aegr <b>īs</b>	aegr <b>īs</b>
Acc. aegr <b>ōs</b>	aegr <b>ās</b>	aegr <b>a</b>
Voc. aegrī	aegr <b>ae</b>	aegr <b>a</b>
Abl. aegrīs	aegr <b>īs</b>	aegr <b>īs</b>

Note.—Most adjectives in er are declined like aeger, but the following in er and ur are declined like liber:

- 1) Asper, rough; lacer, torn; miser, wretched; prösper, prosperous; tener, tender; but asper sometimes drops the e, and dexter, right, sometimes retains it: dexter, dextera, or dextra.
  - 2) Satur, sated; satur, satura, saturum.
  - 3) Compounds in fer and ger: mortifer, deadly; āliger, winged.

# 151. IRREGULARITIES. — Nine adjectives have in the singular $\bar{\mathbf{ius}}^2$ in the Genitive and $\bar{\mathbf{i}}$ in the Dative, and are declined as follows:

A	Alius, $a$	nother.		Sōlus, a	lone.	
			SINGULA	R.		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom. a	lins 3	alia	aliud 3	sõlus	sõla	$s$ $\bar{o}$ lu $m$
Gen. a	lius	alius	alīus 4	sõlius	sōlīus	sõlius
Dat. a	ıliī	əliī	aliî	sõli	sōlī	sõli
Acc. a	lium	aliam	aliud	sõlum	sõlam	sõlum
Voc.				sõle	sõla	sõlum
Abl. a	iliō	alıā	aliō	sõlõ	sõlä	sõlõ

AEGER is declined in the masculine like ager (51), and in the feminine and neuter like bonus.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> I in  $\bar{\imath}us$  is often shortened by the poets; regularly so in alter $\bar{\imath}us$  in daetylic verse (609).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Rarely alis and alid. The same stem appears in ali-quis (190, 2), some one; ali-ter, otherwise.

<sup>4</sup> For aliïus by contraction. Alterius often supplies the place of alīus.

			PLURA	L.		
Nom. Gen.	aliī aliōrum	aliae aliārum	alia aliôrum	sölī sölörum	sõlae sõlärum	sõla sõlõrum
Dat.	aliis	aliIs	aliis	sõlīs	sõlīs	sõlis
Acc.	aliôs	aliās	alia	sõlõs	sõläs	sõla
Voc.				sõlī	sõlae	sõla
Abl.	aliīs	aliîs	aliīs	sõlīs	sõlis	sõlīs

1. These nine adjectives are: alius, a, ud, another; nūllus, a, um, no one; sōlus, alone; tōtus, whole; ūllus, any; ūnus,¹ one; alter, -tera, -terum,² the other³; uter, -tra, -trum,⁴ which (of two); neuter, -tra, -trum,⁴ neither.

Note 1.—The regular forms occasionally occur in the Gen. and Dat. of some of these adjectives.

Noie 2.—Like uter are declined its compounds: uterque, utervis, uterlibet, utercunque. In alteruter sometimes both parts are declined, as alterius utrius; and sometimes only the latter, as alterutrius.

THIRD DECLENSION: CONSONANT AND I STEMS.

- 152. Adjectives of the third declension may be divided into three classes:
- I. Those which have in the Nominative Singular three different forms—one for each gender.
- II. Those which have two forms—the masculine and feminine being the same.
- III. Those which have but one form—the same for all genders.
- 153. Adjectives of Three Endings in this declension have the stem in i, and are declined as follows:

	Ācer, sharp.5	SINGULAR.	
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	ācer 6	ācris	ãcr <b>e</b>
Gen.	ācris	āer <b>is</b>	ācr <b>is</b>
Dat.	ācrī	ācrī	ãer <b>I</b>
Acc.	ācr <b>em</b>	ācr <b>em</b>	ācre
Voc.	ācer	ācris	āere
Abl.	ācr <b>ī</b>	ācrī	ācrī

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See declension, 175.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Gen. alterius, Dat. alteri; otherwise declined like liber (149).

<sup>1</sup> Or one of two, the one.

<sup>4</sup> Gen. utrīus, Dat. utrī; otherwise like aeger (150). Neuter like uter.

ACER is declined like ignis in the Masc. and Fem., and like mare (63) in the Neut., except in the Nom. and Voc. Sing., Masc., and in the Abl. Sing.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> These forms in er are like those in er of Decl. II. in dropping the ending in the Nom. and Voc. Sing. and in developing final r into er: ācer for acris, stem, ācri.

	PLURAL.	
MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom, ācrēs	ācr <b>ēs</b>	ācr <b>ia</b>
Gen. ācrienm	ācr <b>itaten</b>	ācr <b>itum</b>
Dat. ācribus	ācr <b>ibus</b>	ācribus
Acc. ācrēs, īs	ācr <b>ēs</b> , īs	ācr <b>ia</b>
Voc. ācrēs	āer <b>ēs</b>	ācr <b>ia</b>
Abl. ācribus	ācr <b>idus</b>	ācr <b>ibus</b>

Note 1 .- Like Acer are declined:

Alacer, lively; campester, level; celeber, famous; celer, 1 swift; equester, equestrian; patāster, marshy; pedester, pedestrian; putēr, putrid; salāber, healthful; silvester, woody; terrester, terrestrial; volucer, winged.

2) Adjectives in er designating the months: October, bris.2

Note 2.—In the poets and in early Latin the form in er, as  $\bar{a}cer$ , is sometimes feminine, and the form in is, as  $\bar{a}cris$ , is sometimes masculine.

# 154. Adjectives of Two Endings are declined as follows:

Trīstis, sad.3	Tristior, sadder.4		
	SING	ULAR.	•
M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
trīst <b>is</b>	tiiste	trīstior	trīstius
trīst <b>is</b>	trīst <b>is</b>	trīstiār <b>is</b>	trīstiōr <b>is</b>
trīstī	trīstī	trīstiōr <b>ī</b>	trīstiōr <b>ī</b>
tiistem	trīste	trīstiōr <b>em</b>	trīstius
tiīst <b>រំទេ</b>	trīst€	tristior	trīstius
trīstī	trīst <b>ī</b>	trīstiör <b>e</b> (ī) <sup>5</sup>	trīstiōr <b>e</b> (ī)
	PLUR	AL.	
trīst <b>ēs</b>	trīstia	trīstiōr <b>ēs</b>	trīstiör <b>a</b>
trīst <b>ium</b>	trīstūcama	trīstiorum	trīstiörumen
trīst <b>ībus</b>	trīstābus	trīstiōr <b>ibus</b>	trīstiöt <b>ibu</b> s
trīst <b>ēs</b> , īs *	trīst <b>ខែ</b>	trīstiōr <b>ēs</b> ( <b>īs</b> )	trīstiör <b>a</b>
trīst <b>ēs</b>	t≀ī⊰t⊮ือเ	trīstiōr <b>ēs</b>	trīsti <b>ōr</b> a
trīst <b>ibus</b>	tīst <b>ibus</b>	trīstiör <b>ibus</b>	. trīstiör <b>ibus</b>
	M. and F. tristis tristis tristis tristem tristis triste tristis tristis tristes tristium tristibus tristēs, is 'tristēs, is 'tristēs	M. and F. Nect. trīstīs trīstīs trīstīs trīstīs trīstī trīstī trīstēm trīstē trīstī trīstī trīstī trīstē trīstī trīstē trīstī trīstē trīstī trīstā trīstēs trīstā trīstān trīstīnam	M. and F.  Neut.  M. and F.  tristîs  tristîs  tristîs  tristîs  tristî  tristî  tristî  tristî  tristî  tristê  tristê  tristê  tristî  tristi  trist

Note 1.—Like  $tr\bar{s}tior$ , comparatives, as consonant stems, generally have the Abl. Sing. in e, sometimes in  $\bar{e}$ , the Nom. Plur. Neut. in a, and the Gen. Plur. in um. But  $compl\bar{u}r\bar{e}s$ , several, has Gen. Plur.  $compl\bar{u}rium$ ; Nom., Acc., and Voc. Plur. Neut.  $compl\bar{u}r\bar{e}a$  or  $compl\bar{u}r\bar{e}a$ ; see  $Pl\bar{u}s$ , 165.

Note 2.—In poetry, adjectives in is, c, sometimes have the Abl. Sing. in  $e: cogn\~{o}$ -mine from  $cogn\~{o}minis$ , of the same name.

<sup>1</sup> This retains e in declension: celer, celeris, celere; and has um in the Gen. Plur.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See also 77, 2, note.

<sup>3</sup> Trīstis and trīste are declined like ācris and ācre; the stem is trīsti.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Trīstior is the comparative (160) of trīstis; the stem was originally trīstiēs, but it has been modified to trīstius (61, 1) and trīstiēr (31).

<sup>5</sup> Enclosed endings are rare.

155. Adjectives of One Ending generally end in s or x, but sometimes in l or r.

, but sometimes in t or r.	
156. Audāx, audacious.	Fēlīx, happy.1
SINGULAR.	

M. AND F.	NECT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom, audāx	audāx	fēlīx	fēlīx
Gen. audācis	audāc <b>is</b>	fēlīc <b>i</b> s	fēlīc <b>is</b>
<i>Dat.</i> audāe <b>ĭ</b>	audāc <b>ī</b>	fēlīc <b>ī</b>	fēlīc <b>ī</b>
Acc. audācem	audāx	fēlīc <b>em</b>	fēlīx
Voc. audāx	audāx	fēlīx	fēlīx
⊿bl. audācī (e)	audāc <b>ī (e)</b>	fēlīc <b>ī</b> (�)	fēlīcī (e)
	PLUR	AL.	
Nom, audācēs	audăcia	fēlīc <b>ē</b> s	fēlīc <b>i:</b>
Gen. audāci u ma	audāc <b>inu</b>	fēlicium	fēlīc <b>i u un</b>
Dat. audācībus	audāc <b>ibus</b>	fēlīc <b>i b</b> as	fēlīc <b>ibus</b>
Acc. audācēs (Is)	audāc <b>ia</b>	fēlīc <b>ēs</b> (Is)	fēlīc <b>ia</b>
Voc. audācēs	audāc <b>i n</b>	fēlīc <b>ēs</b>	fēlīc <b>i</b> sa
Abl. audācibus	audāci bus	fēlīc <b>ibus</b>	fēlīc <b>ibus</b>

# 157. Amans, loving.

# Prūdēns, prudent.

	SINGUL	AK.	
M. AND F.	NEIT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom. amāns	amāns	prūdēns	prūdēns
Gen. amantis	amant <b>is</b> 2	prüdentis	prüdent <b>is</b> 2
Dat. amant <b>T</b>	amant <b>ī</b>	prūdent∓	prūdent∎
Acc. amantem	amāns	prüdent <b>em</b> =	prūdēns
Voc. amāns	amāns	prūdēns	prūdēns
Abl. amante (1)	amant <b>e</b> (ī)	prüdent $\overline{\imath}$ $(f e)$	prūdent <b>ī (c</b> )
	PLUR.	AL.	
Nom. amantēs	amant <b>i</b> a	prüdent <b>ēs</b>	prüdent <b>ia</b>
Gen. amantinma	amant i sa esa	prüdent <b>i 12 ma</b>	prüdent <b>i</b> mesa
Dat. amantibus	amantibus	prüdent <b>ib</b> us	prādent <b>ib</b> ms
Acc. amantēs (Is)	amant <b>i:</b>	prūdent <b>ēs</b> ( <b>īs</b> )	prādentā <b>s</b>
Voc. amantēs	amant <b>i:</b>	prüdent <b>ēs</b>	prüdentia
All amantibase	amantibus	mendentilans	prodentilassa

Note.—The participle am ins differs in declension from the adjective  $pr\bar{u}dins$  only in the Abl. Sing., where the participle usually has the ending e, and the adjective,  $\mathbf{1}$ .

Observe that i in the Abl. Sing., and ia, ium, and is in the Plur., are the regular case-endings for i-stems; see 62 and 63.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> According to Ritschi, Schmitz, and others, the e which is long in prādēns before no is short in all other forms of the word, i. e., before nt. In the same manner the a which is long in amāns, is according to Ritschi short in amantis, amāntē, etc.; see p. 37, footnote 2. See also Schmitz, pp. 3-26; Ritschi, Rhein, Museum, xxxi, p. 485; Müller, p. 27.

Participles used adjectively may of course take i. A few adjectives have only e in general use:—(1) pauper, paupere, poor; pābes, pābere, mature;—(2) those in es. G. itis or idis: āles, dēses, dēves, sōspes, superstes; (3) caelebs, compos, impos, prīnceps.

#### Memor, mindful. 158. Vetus, old. SINGULAR. M. AND F Neur M AND F Neur Nom. vetus vetus memor memor Gen. veteris veteris memoris memoris Dat. veterī veterī memorii memorī Acc.veterem vetus memorem memor Voc. vetus vetus memor memor Abl. vetere (1) vetere (I) memor I memorT PLURAL. Nom. veteres vetera memorēs Gen. veterum veterum memortagen Dat. veteribus veteribus memoribus Acc. veterēs (Is) vetera. memorēs (Is)

1. Neuter Plural.—Many adjectives like memor, from the nature of their signification, want the Neuter Plural; all others have the ending ia, as félicia, prādentia, except āber, ābera, fertile, and vetus, vetera.

memorēs

memoribus

veters.

veter**i bu**s

- 2. Genitive Plural.—Most adjectives have ium, but the following have um:
- 1) Adjectives of one ending with only e in the Ablative Singular (157, note): pauper, pauperum.
- 2) Those with the Genitive in eris, oris, uris: vetus, veterum, old; memor, memorum, mindful; cicur, cicurum, tame.
  - 3) Those in ceps: anceps, ancipitum, doubtful.
- Those compounded with substantives which have um: inops (ops, cpum), inopum, helpless.

# IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

# 159. Irregular adjectives may be-

Voc. veteres

AbL

veteri bus

- I. INDECLINABLE: frūgī, frugal, good; nēquam, worthless; mīlle, thousand; see 176.
- II. Defective: (eëterus) cētera, cēterum, the other, the rest; (lūdicer) lūdicra, lūdicrum, sportive; (sōns) sontis, guilty; (sēminex) sēminecis, half dead; paucī, ac, a, few, used only in the Plural; see also 158, 1.
- III. Heteroclites.—Many adjectives have two distinct forms, one in us, a, um, of the first and second declensions, and one in is and e of the third: hilarus and hilaris, joyful; exanimus and exanimis. lifeless.

#### COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

- 160. Adjectives have three forms, called the Positive degree, the Comparative, and the Superlative: altus, altior, altissimus, high, higher, highest. These forms denote different degrees of the quality expressed by the adjective.
- 161. The Latin, like the English, has two modes of comparison:
  - I. TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON—by endings.
  - II. Adverbial Comparison—by adverbs.

# I. TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON.

162. Adjectives are regularly compared by adding to the stem of the positive the endings:

Co	MPARATI	VE.		SUPERLATI	VE.
Masc.	Fem.	NEUT.	Masc. issimus	FEM. issima	Neur. issimum <sup>1</sup>
			issimus, <i>high</i> , vissimus, <i>ligh</i>		,

NOTE.—VOWEL STEMS loso their final vowel: alto, altior, altissimus.

- 163. IRREGULAR SUPERLATIVES.—Many adjectives with regular comparatives have irregular superlatives.
- 1. Those in er add rimus to this ending: I acer, acrior, acerrimus, sharp. Note .- Vetus has reterrimus; maturus, both maturrimus and maturissimus: dexter, dextimus.
  - 2. Six in ilis add limus to the stem: 1

facilis. difficilis, easy. difficult. similis. dissimilis, like. unlike, graeilis, humilis, slender. low:

facilis, facilior, facillimus. Imbēcillis has imbēcillimus,

3. Four in rus have two irregular superlatives:

extrêmus and extimus. exterus. exterior. outward. inferus, inferior, infimus and imus. lower. suprēmus and summus, superus, superior, upper, posterus. posterior. postrēmus and postumus, next.

The superlative ending is-simus is probably compounded of io, from ios, the original comparative ending (154, foot-note 4), and simus for timus; ios-timus = ios-simus = is-simus. After l and r, the first element is omitted, and s assimilated: facilis, facilsimus, facil-limus; acer, acer-simus, acer-rimus; but those in ilis drop the final vowel of the stem. See Bopp, §§ 291-307; Schleicher, pp. 488-494; Roby, p. lxvi.

164. Egēnus, providus, and compounds in dicus, ficus, and volus, are compared with the endings entior and entissimus, as if from forms in eas:

egēnus,	egentior,	egentissimus,	needy,
providus,	providentior,	providentissimus,	prudent,
maledicus,	maledieentior,	maledicentissimus,	s!anderous,
mūnificus,	manificentior,	mūnificentissimus,	liberal,
benevolus,	benevolentior,	benevolentissimus,	benevolent.

Note.—Mirificissimus occurs as the superlative of mirificus, wonderful.

#### 165. Special Irregularities of Comparison.

bonus,	melior,	optimus,	good,
malus,	pējor,	pessimus,	bad,
māgnus,	mājor,	māximus,	great,
parvus,	minor,	minimus,	small,
multus,	plūs,	plūrimus,	much.

Note 1.— $Pl\bar{u}s$  is neuter, and has in the singular only Nom. and Acc.  $pl\bar{u}ris$ . In the plural it has Nom. and Acc.  $plur\bar{e}s$  (m. and f.),  $pl\bar{u}ra$  (n.), Gen.  $pl\bar{u}ris$  um, Dat and Abl.  $pl\bar{u}ribus$ .

Note 2.—Dires, frūgī, and nēquam are thus compared:

dīves,	dīvitior,	dīvitissimus, }	rich,
frāgī,	frāgālior,	frūgālissimus,	frugal,
nēquam,	nēquior,	nēquissimus,	worthless.

#### 166. Positive Wanting.

citerior,	citimus,	nearer,	prior,	prīmus,	former,
dēterior,	dēterrimus,	worse,	propior,	prōximus,	nearer,
interior,	intimus,	inner,	ulterior,	ūltimus,	farther.
ōcior,	ōcissimus,	swifter.	1		

#### 167. Comparative wanting.

- 1. In a few participles used adjectively: meritus, meritissimus, deserving.
- 2. In these adjectives:

dīversus,	dīversissimus,	different,	novus,	novissimus,	new,
falsus,	falsissimus,	false,	sacer,	sacerrimus,	sacred,
inclutus,	inclutissimus,	renowned,	vetus.	veterrimus,	old.
invītus,	invitissimus,	unwilling,	, coas,	· ccciinius,	a a

Note.—Many participles used adjectively are compared in full: amūns, amantior, amantissimus, loving; dōctus, dōctior, dōctissimus, instructed, learned.

#### 168. Superlative wanting.

- I. In most verbals in ilis and bilis: docilis, docilior, docile.
- 2. In many adjectives in alis and ilis: capitalis, capitalior, capital.
- 3. In alacer, alacrior, active; caccus, blind; diūturnus, lasting; longīnquus, distant; opīmus, rich; prōclīvis, steep; propinquus, near; salūtāris, salutary, and a few others.
  - 4. Three adjectives supply the superlative thus:

adoléscens, adoléscentior, minimus natů, young, juvenis, jûnior, minimus natů, young, senex, senior, maximus natů, old.

#### 169. WITHOUT TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON.

- 1. Many adjectives, from the nature of their signification, especially such as denote material, possession, or the relations of place and time: aureus, golden; paternus, paternal; Kömänns, Roman; aesticus, of summer.
  - 2. Most adjectives in us preceded by a rowel: i loneus, suitable.
- 3. Many derivatives in ālis, āris, īlis, ulus, icus, īnus, ūrus: mortālis (mors), mortal.
- 4. Albus, white; claudus, lame; fērus, wild; lussus, weary; mīrus, wonderful, and a few others.

#### H. Adverbial Comparison.

- 170. Adjectives which want the terminational comparison, form the comparative and superlative, when their signification requires it, by prefixing the adverbs magis, more, and māxime, most, to the positive: arduus, magis arduus, māxime arduus, arduous.
- 1. Other adverbs are sometimes used with the positive to denote different degrees of the quality: admodum, raldē, oppādē, very; imprīmēs, apprīmē, in the highest degree. Per and prae in composition with adjectives have the force of very: pērdifficilis, very difficult; pracclūrus, very illustrious.
- 2. Strengthening particles are also sometimes used—(1) With the comparative: etiam, even, multō, longō, much, far: etiam diligentior, even more diligent; multō diligentior, much more diligent—(2) With the superlative: multō, longō, much, by far: quam, as possible: multō or longō diligentissimus, by far the most diligent; quam diligentissimus, as diligent as possible.

# NUMERALS.

- 171. Numerals comprise numeral adjectives and numeral adverbs.<sup>2</sup>
  - 172. Numeral adjectives comprise three principal classes:
  - 1. CARDINAL NUMBERS: ūnus, one; duo, two.
  - 2. Ordinal Numbers: prīmus, first; secundus, second.
- 3. DISTRIBUTIVES: singulī, one by one; bīnī, two by two, two each, two apiece.

# 173. To these may be added—

Smallest or youngest in age. Natū is sometimes omitted.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The first ten cardinal numbers, mille, primus, secundus, and semel (once), four-teen words in all, furnish the basis of the Latin numeral system. All other numerals are formed from these either by derivation or by composition.

- 1. MULTIPLICATIVES, adjectives in plex, Gen. plicis, denoting so many fold: simplex, single; duplex, double; triplex, threefold.
- 2. Proportionals, declined like bonus, and denoting so many times as great: duplus, twice as great; triplus, three times as great.

# 174. Table of Numeral Adjectives:

CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.
1. únus, úna, únum	prīmus, $first$	singuli, one by one
2. duo, duae, duo	secundus,4 second	bini, two by two
3. três, tria	tertius, third	ternī (trīnī)
4. quattuor	quartus, fourth	quaternī
5. quinque	quīntus, <i>fifth</i>	quinī
6. sex	sextus	sēnī
7. septem	septimus	septēnī
8. oeto	oetāvus	oetōnī
9. novem	nonus	novēnī
10. decem	decimus	dēnī
11. ūndecim	ŭndecimus	ûndênî
12. duodecim	duodeeimus	duodēnī
13. tredeeim <sup>1</sup>	tertius decimus 5	ternī dēnī
14. quattuordeeim	quartus decimus	quaternī dēnī
15. quīndecim	quīntus decimus	quinî dênî
<ol> <li>sēdceim or sexdecim ¹</li> </ol>	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī
17. septendecim <sup>1</sup>	septimus deeimuş	septênî dê <b>nî</b>
18. duodėvīgintī <sup>2</sup>	duodēvīcēsimus 6	duodēvīcēnī
19. ŭndëviginti <sup>2</sup>	ūndēvīcēsimus 6	ūndēvīcēnī
20. vīgintī	vīcēsimus <sup>7</sup>	vīcēnī
21.∫ vīgintī ūnus	vieēsimus p <b>rīmus</b>	vīcēni singu <b>l</b> ī
ūnus et vīgintī 3	ūnus et vīcēsimus 3	singulī et vīcēnī
22. {vīgintī duo	vīcēsimus seeundus	vīcēnī bīnī
duo et vīgintī	alter et vīcēsimus	bīnī et vīcēnī
30. trīgintā	trīcēsimus <sup>7</sup>	trīcēnī
40. quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsimus	quadrāgēnī
50. quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsimus	quinquägéni
60. sexāgintā	sexāgēsimus	sexāgēnī
70. septuāgintā	septuāgēsimus	septuāgēnī
80. oetōgintā	octógēsimus	octôgē <b>n</b> ī

<sup>1</sup> Sometimes with the parts separated: decem et tris; decem et sex, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Literally two from twenty, one from twenty, by subtraction; but these numbers may be expressed by addition: decem et octo; decem et novem; so 28, 29; 38, 39, etc., either by subtraction from triginti, etc., or by addition to riginti.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> If the tens precede the units,  $\epsilon t$  is omitted, otherwise it is generally used. So in English cardinals, twenty-one, one and twenty.

<sup>4</sup> Alter is often used for secundus.

<sup>5</sup> Decimus, with or without et, may precede: decimus et tertius or decimus tertius.

<sup>6</sup> Sometimes expressed by addition; octāvus decimus and nonus decimus.

<sup>7</sup> Sometimes written with g: vīgēsimus; trīgēsimus.

CARDINALS,	OEDINALS,	DISTRIBUTIVES.
90. nõnägintä	nonégésimus	nonágení
100. centum	centi simus	centēnī .
101.1 centum ūnus	eentēsimus prīmus	centeni singuli
centum et unus 1	centésimus et primus	centëni et singuli
200. ducenti, ac, a	ducentésimus	ducenī
300. trecenti	trecentésimus	trecenī
400. quadringenti	quadringentésimus	quadringēnī
500. quingenti	quingentésimus	quingénī
600, sescenti 2	šēscentēsimus <sup>2</sup>	séscént <sup>2</sup>
700. septingenti	septingentėsimus	septingēnī
800. octingenti	oetingentēsimus	octingční
900. nongentī	nõngentēsimus	nongeni
1,000, niille	mīllēsimus	singula milia 3
2,000, duo mīlia 3	bis mīllēsimus	bîna mīlia
100,000, centum milia	centies millesimus	centêna mîlia
1,000,000. desies centena	decies centies millesi-	decies centena mī-
mīlia 4	mus	lia *

1. Ordinals with pars, part, expressed or understood, may be used to express fractions: tertia pars, a third part, a third; quarta pars, a fourth; duae tertiae, two thirds.

Note.—Cardinal numbers with partis are used in fractions when the denominator is alarger than the numerator by one: duale partis, two thirds, très partis, three fourths, etc.

- 2. DISTRIBUTIVES are used-
- 1) To show the number of objects taken at a time, often best rendered by adding to the cardinal each or apiece: ternos dinarios acciperant, they received each three denarii, or three apiece. Hence—
- 2) To express Multiplication: deciès centena milia, ten times a hundred thousand, a million.
- 3) Instead of Cardinals, with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: bina castra, two camps. Here for singuli and terni, uni and trini are used: unae litterae, one letter; trinae litterae, three letters.
- 4) Sometimes of objects spoken of in pairs: bini scyphi, a pair of goblets; and in the poets with the force of cardinals: bina hartilia, two spears.
- 3. Poets use numeral adverbs (181) very freely in compounding numbers: bis sex, for duodecim; bis septem, for quattuordecim.
- Sescenti and mille are sometimes used indefinitely for any large number, as one thousand is used in English.
- <sup>1</sup> In compounding numbers above 160, units generally follow tens, tens hundreds, etc., as in English; but the connective et is either omitted, or used only between the two highest denominations: mille contum viginti or mille et centum viginti, 1120.
  - 2 Often incorrectly written \*excenti, \*excentesimus, and \*exceni.
  - <sup>2</sup> Often written millia. For duo milia, bina milia or bis mille is sometimes used.
- 4 Literally "ten times a hundred thousand"; the table might be carried up to any desired number by using the proper numeral adverb with cent na milia: centi's centian milia, 10,000,000; sometimes in such combinations centina milia is understood, and the adverb only is expressed, and sometimes centum milia is used.

#### DECLENSION OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

# 175. $\bar{U}nus$ , Duo, and $Tr\bar{e}s$ are declined as follows:

	SING	ULAR.	Ūnus, one.	PLI	CRAL.	
Nom.	ūnus	ūna	ūnum	ūnī	ūnae	ūna
Gen.	นิทรินธ	ūnīus	ūnīus	ũnôrum	ūnārunī	ūnõrum
Dut.	ūnī	ūnī	ūnī	ūnīs	ūnīs	ūnīs
Acc.	ūnum	ūnam	űnum	ūnōs	ūnās	ūna
Voc.	ūne	ūna	ūnum	ūnī	ūnae	ūna
Abl.	ūnō	ūnā	ūnō	ūnīs	ūnīs	ūnis
	3	Duo, two.		Т	rēs, three.	
Nom.	duo	duae	duo 1	trēs, m. ar	nd f.	tria, n.
Gen.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum²	trium	•	trium
Dat.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus	0	tribus
Acc.	duōs, duo	duãs	duo	trēs, trīs		tria
Voc.	đuo ,	duae	duo	trēs		tria
Abl.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus		tribus

Note 1.—The plural of  $\bar{u}nus$  in the sense of *alone* may be used with any noun:  $\bar{v}n\bar{i}$   $Ubi\bar{i}$ , the Ubii alone; but in the sense of *one*, it is used only with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense:  $\bar{u}na$  eastra, one camp;  $\bar{u}nae$  litterae, one letter.

Note 2.—Like duo is declined ambo, both.

Note 3.—Multi, many, and plarimi, very many, are indefinite numerals, and as such generally want the singular. But in the poets the singular occurs in the sense of  $many\ a:multa\ hostia$ , many a victim.

- 176. The Cardinals from quattuor to centum are indeclinable.
- 177. Hundreds are declined like the plural of bonus: ducenti, ae, a.
- 178. Mīlle as an adjective is indeclinable; as a substantive it is used in the singular in the Nominative and Accusative, but in the plural it is declined like the plural of marc (63): mīlia, mīlium, mīlibus.

Note.—With the substantive mille, millia, the name of the objects enumerated is generally in the Genitive: mille hominum, a thousand men (of men); but if a declined numeral intervenes it takes the case of that numeral: tria milia trecenti milites, three thousand three hundred soldiers.

179. Ordinals are declined like *bonus*, and distributives like the *plural* of *bonus*, but the latter often have  $\bar{u}m$  instead of  $\bar{v}rum$  in the Genitive:  $b\bar{v}n\bar{v}m$  for  $b\bar{v}n\bar{v}rum$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the ending o in duo and ambo (175, note 2), we have a remnant of the dual number which has otherwise disappeared from the Latin, though preserved in Greek and Sanskrit. Compare the Sanskrit dva, the Greek  $\delta \dot{v}o$ , the Latin duo, and the English two.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Instead of  $du\bar{v}rum$  and  $du\bar{u}rum$ ,  $du\bar{u}m$  is sometimes used.

<sup>3</sup> Rarely in other eases in connection with mīlium or mīlibus,

<sup>4</sup> Generally written with one l: mīlia, but sometimes with two: mīllia.

#### 180. Numeral Symbols:

ABABIC.	ROMAN.	ARABIC.	ROMAN.	Arabio.	ROMAN.
1.	I.	12.	XII.	50.	L.
2.	II.	13.	XIII.	60.	LX.
3.	111.	14.	XIV.	70.	LXX.
4.	IV.	15.	XV.	80.	LXXX.
5.	V.	16.	XVI.	90.	XC.
6.	VI.	17.	XVII.	100.	С.
7.	VII.	18.	· XVIII.	200.	CC.
8.	VIII.	19.	XIX.	500.	ID, or D.
9.	IX.	20.	XX.	600.	DC.
10.	X.	30.	XXX.	1,000.	CIO, or M.1
11.	XI.	40.	XL.	10,000.	CCIDD.

- 1. Latin Numeral Symbols are combinations of: I = 1; V = 5; X = 10; L = 50; C = 100; to or D = 500; Cto or M = 1,000.2
  - 2. In the Combination of these symbols, except ID, observe-
  - 1) That the repetition of a symbol doubles the value: H = 2; XX = 20.
- 2) That any symbol standing before one of greater value, subtracts its own value, but that after one of greater value, it adds its own value: V = 5; IV = 5 1 = 4; VI = 5 + 1 = 6.
  - 3. In the Combination of 10 observe-
- 1) That each O (inverted C) after IO increases the value tenfold: IO =  $500 \times 10 = 5,000 \times 10 = 5,000 \times 10 = 50,000$ .
- 2) That these numbers are doubled by placing C the same number of times before I as O stands after it: IO = 500; CIO = 500 × 2 = 1,000; IOO = 5,000; CCIOO = 5,000 × 2 = 10,000.
- 3) That smaller symbols standing after these add their value: IO = 500; IOC = 600; IOCC = 700.

# NUMERAL ADVERBS.

# 181. To numerals belong also numeral adverbs:

1. semel, once	5. quinquiès 3	9. noviēs
2. bis, twice	6. sexičs	10. decies
3. ter, thr. e times	7. septiés	11. ündecičs
4. quater	8. octies	12. duodecië

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Thousands are sometimes denoted by a line over the symbol:  $\overline{11} = 2,000$ ;  $\overline{V} = 5,600$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The origin of these symbols is uncertain. According to Mommsen, I is the outstretched finger; V, the open hand; X, the two bands crossed; L, the open hand like V, but in a different position; CD is supposed to be a modification of the Greek  $\Phi$ , not otherwise used by the Romans, afterward changed to M; D, afterward changed to D, is a part of CD; C is also supposed to be a modification of the Greek  $\Theta$ , but it may be the initial letter of centum, as M may be that of m:U.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> In adverbs formed from cardinal numbers, its is the approved ending, though iens often occurs. In adverbs from indefinite numeral adjectives it in a the approved ending: tottins (from tot), so often; quotiëns (from quot), how often. See Brambach, p. 14.

200, ducenties

20. vīciēs

, (terdeciēs

13. tredeciēs	21. semel et vīciēs	300. trecenties
14.{quaterdeciēs quattuordeciēs	22. bis et vīciēs	400. quadringenties
14. l quattuordecies	30. trīcies	500. quingenties
15. (quīnquiēsdeciēs (quīndeciēs	40. quadrāgiēs	600. sēscentiēs
tquindecies	50. quīnquāgies	700. septingentiës
16. (sexiēsdeciēs Asēdeciēs	60. sexāgičs	800. octingenties
10.) sēdeciēs	70. septu īgies	ooo (nõningenties
<ol> <li>septiēsdeeiēs</li> </ol>	80. octogies	900. (nõningenties Inõngenties
18. (duodēvīciēs Loctiēsdeciēs	90. non igies	1,000. milliës 1
	100. centičs	2,000. bis millies
19.{ undevīcies	101. centičs semel	100,000. centies millies
noviēsdeciēs	102. centies bis	1,000,000. mīlliēs mīlliēs

Note 1.—In compounds of units and tens, the unit with et generally precedes, as in the table:  $bis\ et\ vicies;$  the tens, however, with or without et, may precede.

Note 2.—Another class of numeral adverbs in um or  $\tilde{o}$  is formed from the ordinals;  $primum, prim\tilde{o}$ , for the first time, in the first place;  $tertium, terti\tilde{o}$ , for the third time.

# CHAPTER III.

# PRONOUNS.

182. In construction, Pronouns<sup>2</sup> are used either as Substantives: ego, I,  $t\bar{u}$ , thou; or as Adjectives: meus, my, tuus, vour.

183. Pronouns are divided into six classes:

- 1. Personal Pronouns:  $t\bar{u}$ , thou.
- 2. Possessive Pronouns: meus, my.
- 3. Demonstrative Pronouns :  $h\bar{t}c$ , this,
- 4. Relative Pronouns : quī, who.
- 5. Interrogative Pronouns: quis. who?
- 6. Indefinite Pronouns: atiquis, some one.

# I. Personal Pronouns.

184. Personal Pronouns, so called because they designate the person of the noun which they represent, are:

<sup>1</sup> Millies is often used indefinitely like the English a thousand times.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> But in their signification and use, Pronouns differ widely from ordinary substantives and adjectives, as they never name any object, action or quality, but simply point out its relation to the speaker, or to some other person or thing; see 314, II., with foot-note.

<sup>3</sup> Also called Substantive Pronouns, because they are always used substantively.

SINGULAR.  Nom. $ego^2$ $t\bar{u}$ Gen. $me\bar{i}$ $tu\bar{i}$ su  Da'. $mih\bar{i}$ or $m\bar{i}$ $tib\bar{i}$ $sil$ Acc. $m\bar{e}$ $t\bar{e}$ $s\bar{e}$	
Nom.     ego $^2$ tũ       Gen.     mei     tuĩ     su       Da'.     mihỉ or mĩ     tibǐ     si       Acc.     mẽ     tẽ     sẽ	himself, etc.
Gcn. mei tuï su $Da'.$ mihi or mī tibǐ sil $Acc.$ mē tē sē	
Da'. mihi o $c$ mī tibi sil $Acc$ . mē tē sē	
Acc. mē tē sē	ı î
	bĭ
17	•
Voc. tũ	
Abl. mē tē sē	i
PLURAL.	
Nom, nos vos	
Gen. (nostrūm vestrūm 3) su	.7
(nostri vestri )	11
Dat. nobis vo'is sil	bĭ
Acc. nos vos se	*
Voc. vos	
Abl. nobis vobis sē	•

- 1. The Case-Endings of Pronouns differ considerably from those of Nouns.
- 2. Svi, of himself, etc., is often called the Reflexive pronoun.
- 3. Emphatic Forms in met occur, except in the Gen. Plur.: egomet, I myself; têmet, etc. But the Nom. tū has tūte and tūtemet, not tūmet.
  - 4. REDUPLICATED FORMS.—Sese, tête, même, for se, tê, mê.
- Ancient and Rare Forms.—Mis for mei; tis for tui; med and mepte for me; ted for te; sed, sepse, for se.
- 6. Ctm, when used with the ablative of a Personal Pronoun, is appended to it: mēcum, tēcum.

# II. Possessive Pronouns.

# **185**. From *Personal* pronouns are formed the *Possessives*:

meus, a, um, my; noster, tra, trum, our; tuus, a, um, thy, your; vester, tra, trum, your; suus, a, um, his, hers, its; suus, a, um, their.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ego has no connection in form with  $me\bar{\imath}$ ,  $mih\bar{\imath}$ , etc., but it corresponds to the Greek ἐγών, ἐγώ. The oblique cases of ego and  $t\bar{\imath}$  in the singular are derived from the Indo-European roots ma and tva. Compare the Accusative Singular of each in—

SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	English,
mā-m <i>or</i> mā,	μé,	mě,	me.
tvā-m or tvā,	τέ or σέ,	tē,	thee.

Sui, sibi, s<sup>2</sup>, in both numbers are formed from the root sra. The origin of the plural forms of ego and tū is obscure. See Papillon, pp. 142-149; Kühner, 1., pp. 37-3-2.

<sup>1</sup> Of himself, herself, itself. The Nominative is not used.

<sup>3</sup> Festrum and restri are also written rostrum and rostri, though less correctly. Mei, tui, sui, nostri, and restri, are in form strictly Possessives in the Gen. Sing., but by the become Personal. Nostri and restri have also become Plural. Thus, memor restri, 'mindful of you,' means literally mindful of yours, i. e., of your welfare, interest. Nostrum and restrum, for nostrum and restrum, are also Possessives; see 185.

Note 1.- Possessives are declined as adjectives of the first and second declensions; but meus has in the Vocative Singular Masculine generally mī, sometimes meus, and in the Genitive Plural sometimes meum instead of meōrum.

Note 2.- Emphatic forms in pte and met occur: suapte, suamet.

Note 3.—Other possessives are: (1) evijus, a, um,<sup>2</sup> 'whose,' and cvijus, a, um,<sup>3</sup> 'whose?' declined like bonus, and (2) the Patrials, nostries, Gentive ātis, 'of our country,' restries, Gentive ātis, 'of your country,' and cvijus, Gentive ātis, 'of whose country,' declined as adjectives of Declension 111.

#### III. Demonstrative Pronouns.

186. Demonstrative Pronouns, so called because they specify the objects to which they refer, are declined as follows:

#### I. Hic. this.4

			*			
	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	
Nom. hie	haec	hŏc	hĩ	hae <sup>7</sup>	haec	
Gen. hūjus	hūjus	hūjus 5	hõrum	hārum	hōrum	
Dat. huic	huic	huic	hīs	hīs	hīs	
Acc. hunc	hanc	hŏc 6	$h\bar{o}s$	hās	haec	
Abl. hāc	hãc	hõe	hīs	hīs	hīs	

# II. 1ste, that, that of yours; \* see 450.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.	Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom. iste	ista	istud	istī	istae	ista
Gen. istĭus	istĭus	istĭus <sup>5</sup>	istõrum	istārum	istōrum
Dat. istī	istî	istī	istīs	istīs	istīs
Acc. istum	istam	istud 6	istōs	istās	ista
Abl. istō	istā	istō	istīs	istīs	istīs

- <sup>1</sup> In early Latin tuus is sometimes written toros, and suus, soros.
- <sup>2</sup> From the relative qui, cūjus (187), also written quōius.
- <sup>3</sup> From the interrogative quis, cājus (188), also written quōius.
- 4 The stem of ht̃e is ho, ha, which by the addition of i, another pronominal stem, seen in i-s, 'he,' becomes in certain cases ht̃ (for ho-i), hae (for ha-i), as in ht̄-e, hae-e. The forms ho, ha, appear in hō-e, ha-ne. Ancient and rare forms of this pronoun are hēc (for ht̃e), htħins (for ht̄n̄, hōn̄, hōle, hoice (for huie), hone (for hune), heis, heisee, hīs, ht̄n̄n̄s (for h̄n̄e, h̄n̄), ht̄n̄n̄s (for h̄n̄s).
- <sup>5</sup> The Genitive suffix is us, appended to the stem after the addition of i (foot-note 4):  $ho \cdot i \cdot us$ , hijus (i changed to j between two vowels, 28),  $isto \cdot i \cdot us$ , istius (i retained after a consonant). The suffix us, originally us, is in origin the same as the suffix is in the third declension. In one the original vowel a is weakened to u, and in the other to i. See Wordsworth, p. 95; Corsson, I., p. 307.

In prose i in the ending ius is generally long.

- Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns want the Vocative,
- 7 Here the form with e, haec, is sometimes used.
- \* The stem of iste (for istus) is isto in the Masc, and Neut., and ista in the Fem. O is weakened to e in iste (24, 1, note) and to u in istu-d. Ancient and rare forms of isto

III. Ille, that, that one, he, is declined like iste; see II. on the preceding page.

IV. Is, he, this, that.2

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.			
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	is	ea	id	eī, iī	eae	ea
Gen.	ējus	ējus	ējus	eōrum	eārum	eõrum
Dat.	ěī	ěī	ěī 3	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs
Acc.	eum	eam	id 4	eōs	eās	ea
Abl.	eō	eā	eō	eīs, iīs	eīs, iis	eīs, 1īs

# V. Ipse, self, he.5

	SINGULAR,			PLURAL.		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	ipse	ipsa	ipsum	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
Gen.	ipsius	ipsius	ipsĭus	ipsõrum	ipsārum	ipsörum
Dat.	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum	ipsõs	ipsās	ipsa
Abl.	ipsõ	ipsā	ipsō	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

#### VI. Idem, the same.6

are istus (for iste), forms in \(\bar{i}\), ae, \(\bar{i}\) (for \(\bar{i}us\)) in the Genitive, and in \(\bar{o}\), ae, \(\bar{o}\) (for \(\bar{i}\)) in the Dat.: ist\(\bar{i}\) (for ist\(\bar{i}us\)), ist\(\bar{o}\) (for ist\(\bar{i}us\)), istae (for ist\(\bar{i}us\)) or ist\(\bar{i}us\)).

- <sup>1</sup> The stem of ille (for illus) is illo, illa. Ancient and rare forms are (1) illus (for ille), forms in \(\tilde{\ell}\_i\), ae, \(\tilde{\ell}\_i\) (for \(\tilde{\ell}\_i\)) in the Genitive Singular, and in \(\tilde{\ell}\_i\), ae, \(\tilde{\ell}\_i\) (for \(\tilde{\ell}\_i\)) in the Dative Singular: illi (for illius), etc.; (2) forms from ollus or olle (for those from ille): ollus, olla, etc.
- 2 The stem of is is i, strengthened in most of its case-forms to eo, ea. Ancient or rare forms of is are, eis (for is); ê-i-ei, ei-ei, i-ei, eae (for Dative Singular êt); im, em (for eum); e-eis, i-eis, eis (for Nominative Plural et); ê-i-eis, ei-eis, ei-eis, ibus, eābus (for eis). To these may be added a few rare forms from a root of kindred meaning, so, sea: sum, sum=eum, eum; sis; sās=eis, eās. This root appears in ip-sus, ip-sum. Si, if, and si-e, thus, are probably Locatives from this root or from sva, the root of sni (184).
- Sometimes a diphthong in poetry. In the same way the plural forms e\(\tilde{i}\), i\(\tilde{i}\), i\(\tilde{i}\), i are sometimes monosyllables. Instead of i\(\tilde{i}\) and i\(\tilde{i}\), i and i\(\tilde{i}\) are sometimes written.
  - 4 See page 72, foot-note 6.
- Ipse (for ipsus = i-pe-sus) is compounded of is or its stem i, the intensive particle pe, 'even,' 'indeed,' and the pronominal root so, sa, mentioned in foot-note 2 above. The stem is ipso, ipsu, but forms occur with the first part declined and pse unchanged: eum-pse, sam-pse, etc.; sometimes combined with re: reapse = re-eapse = re ipsa, 'in reality.' Ipsus (for ipse) is not uncommon.
- In idem, compounded of is and dem, only the first part is declined. Isdem is shortened to idem, iddem to idem, and m is changed to n before dem (33, 4). In early Latin eisdem and isdem occur for idem; eidem and idem for idem; eisdem and isdem in the Nominative Plural for cidem.

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.	Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom, idem	${\rm eadem}$	idem	∫ eīdem² ≀iīdem	eaedem	eadem
Gen. ējusde	em <b>ējusdem</b>	ējusdem	eõrundem	eārundem	eõrundem
Dat. ĕīdem	ĕîdem	ĕīdem ¹	∫ eīsdem } iīsdem	eīsdem iīsdem	eīsdem ² iīsdem
Acc. eunde	m eaudem	idem	$e\bar{o}sdem$	eāsdem	eadem
Abl. eōden	n eādem	eōdem	∫ eīsdem } iīsdem	eīsdem iīsdem	eīsdem ² iīsdem

- Hǐc (for h̄-cc) is compounded with the demonstrative particle ce, meaning here. The forms in c have dropped e, while the other forms have dropped the particle entirely. But ce is often retained for emphasis; h̄cc, h̄ōjusce, h̄ōsce, h̄ōrunce (m changed to n), h̄ōrunc (e dropped). Ce, changed to ci, is generally retained before the interrogative ne: h̄cine, hōseine.
  - ILLT AND ISTTC,3 also compounded with the particle ce, are declined alike, as follows:

		SINGUL	AR.		PLURAL.	
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	illī́e	illaec	illūc (illŏc)	illīe	illace	illaec
Gen.	illīusce	illĭusce	illiusce 4			
Dat.	illīc	illīe	illīc	illīsee	illīsec	illīsce
Acc.	illune	illane	illãe (illãe)	illōsee	illäsce	illaec
Ab!.	illōe	illãe	illõe	illīsce	illīsce	illîsce

- 3. Syncopated Forms, compounded of ecce or ēn, 'lo,' 'see,' and some cases of demonstratives, especially the Accusative of ille and is, occur: eccum for ecce eum; eccos for ecce eos; ēllum for ēn illum; ēllam for ēn illam.
- Demonstrative Adjectives: tālis, e, such; tantus, a, um, so great; tot, so many; totus, a, um, so great. Tot is indeclinable; the rest regular.

Note,—For  $t\bar{\imath}lis$ , the Genitive of a demonstrative with  $mod\bar{\imath}$  (Genitive of modus, measure, kind) is often used:  $h\bar{\imath}pismod\bar{\imath}$ ,  $\bar{\epsilon}pismod\bar{\imath}$ , of this kind, such.

#### IV. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

187. The Relative  $qu\bar{\imath}$ , 'who,' so called because it relates to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, called its antecedent, is declined as follows:

<sup>1</sup> Sometimes a dissyllable.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Eidem and eisdem are the approved forms. Instead of iidem and iisdem, dissyllables in poetry, idem and isdem are often written.

<sup>3</sup> Illic and istic are formed from the stems of ille and iste in the same manner as his is formed from its stem; see page 72, foot-note 4.

<sup>4</sup> Observe that ce is retained in full after s, but shortened to c in all other situations.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> The stem of qui is quo, qua, which becomes co, cu in cujus and cui. Qui and

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
Mas	c. Fem.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom. quī	quae	quod	quī	quae	quae
Gen. cujus	s cūjus	cūjus	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
Dat. cui	eui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc. quen	ı¹ quam	quod	quõs	quās	quae
Abl. quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus

- 1.  $Qui^2 = qu\bar{o}$ ,  $qu\bar{a}$ , 'with which,' 'wherewith,' is a Locative or Ablative of the relative  $qu\bar{i}$ .
- 2. Cum, when used with the Ablative of the relative, is generally appended to it: quibuseum.
- 3. Quicumque and Quisquis, 'whoever,' are called from their signification general relatives.' Quicumque (quicunque) is declined like qui. Quisquis is rare except in the forms, quisquis, quidquid (quicquid), quòquò.

Note.—The parts of Qaleumque are sometimes separated by one or more words:  $qu\ddot{a}$   $r\dot{e}$  cumque.

4. RELATIVE ADJECTIVES: quālis, e, such as; quantus, a, um, so great; quot, as many as; quotus, a, um, of which number; and the double and compound forms: quālisquālis, quāliscumque, etc.

Note.—For Qualis the Genitive of the relative with modi is often used: cajusmodi, of what kind, such as; cajuscumquemodi, cuicuimodi (for cajuscajusmodi), of whatever kind.

#### V. Interrogative Pronouns.

188. The Interrogative Pronouns quis and  $qu\bar{\imath}$ , with their compounds, are used in asking questions. They are declined as follows:

quae are formed from quo and qu t like  $h^{\sharp}$  and hae in  $h^{\sharp}$ -e and hae-e from ho and ha; see 186, 1., foot-note 4. Ancient or rare terms are quei, quis (for qai), Nom. Sing.; quiius (i=j); quei, cut (for  $e^{ij}$ )pus, as in  $eut_{im}od^{\sharp}=e^{ij}us_{mod}i$ ), quoie; quoi (for qui); quis (for qui). Nom. Plur.; quei (for quee), Fem. and Neut, Plur.; queis, quis (for quibus).

¹ An Accusative quom, also written quum and cum, formed directly from the stem quo, became the conjunction quom, quum, cum, 'when,' lit. during which, i.e., during which time. Indeed, several conjunctions are in their origin Accusatives of pronouns: quam, 'in what way,' 'how,' is the Accusative of quī; quamquam, 'however much,' the Accusative of quis-quis (187, 3); tum, 'then,' and tum, 'so,' Accusatives of the pronominal stem to, ta, seen in is-tus, is-to, is-ta (186, II., foot-note 8).

<sup>2</sup> This is an element in  $qu\bar{i}n = qu\bar{i}-ne$ , by which not, that not, and in  $qu\bar{i}ppe = qu\bar{i}-pe$ , indeed.

Relative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs may be made general in signification by taking cumque, like qui-cumque, or by being doubled like quis-quis: quilis-cumque, quilis-quilis, of whatever kind; uhi-cumque, ubi-ubi, wheresoever.

4 The relative  $qu\bar{\imath}$ , the interrogatives  $qu\bar{\imath}\imath$ ,  $qu\bar{\imath}$ , and the indefinites  $qu\bar{\imath}s$ ,  $qu\bar{\imath}$ , are all formed from the stem quo, qua. The ancient and rare forms are nearly the same in all; see page 74, foot-note 5.

# I. Quis, who, which, what?

		SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
	Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	quis	quae	quid	quī	quae	quae
Gen.	eūjus	cūjus	cūjus	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
Dat.	eui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quem	quam	quid	quōs 、	quās	quae
Abl.	quō	quā	$\mathbf{qu}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$	quibus	quibus	quibus

- II. Quī, which, what? is declined like the relative quī.
- 1. Quis is generally used substantively, and Qui, adjectively. The forms quis and quem are sometimes feminine.
- 2. Qui, how? in what way? is a Locative or Ablative of the interrogative quis; see 187, 1.
- 3. Compounds of quis and qui are declined like the simple pronouns: quisnam, quinam, ecquis, etc. But ecquis has sometimes ecqua for ecquae.
- 4. Interrogative Adjectives: qualis, e, what? quantus, a, um, how great? quot, how many? quotus, a, um, of what number? uter, utra, utrum, which (of two)? see 151.

#### VI. Indefinite Pronouns.

- 189. Indefinite Pronouns do not refer to any definite persons or things. The most important are quis and qui, with their compounds.
- 190. Quis, 'any one,' and  $qu\bar{\imath}$ , 'any one,' 'any,' are the same in form and declension as the interrogatives quis and  $qu\bar{\imath}$ . But—
- 1. After  $s\bar{\imath}$ , nisi,  $n\bar{e}$ , and num, the Fem. Sing. and Neut. Plur. have quae or qua:  $s\bar{\imath}$  quae,  $s\bar{\imath}$  qua.
  - 2. From quis and qui are formed-
  - 1) The Indefinites:

aliquis, quispiam, quidam, quisquam,	aliqua, quaepiam, quaedam, quaequam,	aliquid or aliquod,¹ quidpiam or quodpiam,² quiddam or quoddam,³ quiequam or quidquam,⁴	some, some one. some, some one. certain, certain one. any one.
quinquin,	quaequain,	quiequam or quiaquam,	any one.

<sup>1</sup> Aliquis is compounded of ali, seen in ali-us; quisquam, of quis and quam; quisque, of quis and que (from qui); quivis, of qui and the verb vis (293), 'you wish'—hence qui-vis, 'any you wish'; quilibet, of qui and the impersonal libet, 'it pleases.'

Also written quippiam, quoppiam,

<sup>9</sup> Quidam changes m to n before d: quendam for quemdam.

<sup>4</sup> Quisquam generally wants the Fem. and the Plur.

#### 2) The General Indefinites:

quisque,	quaeque,	quidque	or quodque,1	every, every one.
quivis,	quaevis,	quidvīs (	<i>or</i> quodvīs,	any one you please.
quilibet,	quaelibet,	quidlibet	<i>or</i> quodlibet,	any one you please.

Note 1.—These compounds are generally declined like quis and qui, but they have in the Neut, Sing, quod used adjectively, and quid substantively.

Note 2.—Aliquis has aliqua instead of aliquae in the Fem. Sing. and Neut. Plur. Aliqui for aliquis occurs.

191. The correspondence which exists between Demonstratives, Relatives, Interrogatives, and Indefinites, is seen in the following

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES.

INTERROGATIVE.	INDEFINITE.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
quis, qui, who? what?2	quis, qui,3 any one, any; aliquis,3 some one, some; quidam, certain one, certain;	hie, this one, this; iste, that one, that; itle, that one, that; itle, that one, that; is, he, that;	quì,3 who.
uter, which of two?	uter or alteruter, ei- ther of two;	uterque, each, both; 5	quī, who.
quālis, of what kind?	quālislibet,3 of any kind;	tālis, such;	quālis,³ as.
quantus, how great?	aliquantus, some- what great; quan- tusvis, as great as you please;	tantus, so great;	quantus,3 as, as great.
quot, how many?	aliquot, some;	tot, so many;	quot, as, as many.

Note.—Nesció quis, 'I know not who,' has become in effect an indefinite pronoun = quidam, 'some one.' So also nesció qui, 'I know not which' or 'what' = 'some'; nesció quot = aliquot, 'some,' 'a certain number.'

<sup>1</sup> In unus-quisque both parts are regularly declined.

<sup>2</sup> Observe that the question quis or qui, who or what? may be answered indefinitely by quis, qui, atiquis, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative, either alone or with a relative, as by hie, this one, or hie qui, this one who; is, he, or is qui, he who, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In form observe that the indefinite is either the same as the interrogative or is a compound of it: quis, ali-quis, qui, qui-dam, and that the relative is usually the same as the interrogative.

<sup>4</sup> On hic, iste, ille, and is, see 450; 451, 1.

Or one of the demonstratives, hic, inte, etc.

# CHAPTER IV.

# VERES.

- 192. Verbs in Latin, as in English, express existence, condition, or action: est, he is; dormit, he is sleeping; legit, he reads.
  - 193. Verbs comprise two principal classes:
- I. Transitive Verbs admit a direct object of the action: servum verberat, he beats the slave.
- H. Intransitive Verbs do not admit such an object: puer currit, the boy runs.
  - 194. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

#### I. VOICES.

195. There are two voices:

- I. The Active Voice<sup>2</sup> represents the subject as acting or existing: pater filium amat, the father loves his son; est, he is.
- II. The Passive Voice represents the subject as acted upon by some other person or thing: filius ā patre amātur, the son is loved by his father.
- 1. Interassive Verbs generally have only the active voice, but are sometimes used impersonally in the passive; see 301, 1.
- 2. Deponent Veres 3 are Passive in form, but not in sense: loquor, to speak. But see 231.

# II. Moods.

# 196. There are three moods: 4

<sup>1</sup> Here serrum, 'the slave,' is the object of the action: beats (what?) the slave. The object thus completes the meaning of the verb. He beats is incomplete in sense, but the boy runs is complete, and accordingly does not admit an object.

3 So called from \(\delta\tilde{e}\tilde{p}\tilde{n}\tilde{\delta}\), to lay aside, as they dispense, in general, with the active form and the passive meaning. For deponent verbs with the sense of the Greek Middle, tee 465.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Voice shows whether the subject acts (Active Voice), or is acted upon (Passive Voice). Thus, with the Active Voice, 'the father loves his son,' the subject, father, is the one who performs the action, loves, while with the Passive Voice, 'the son is loved by the father,' the subject, son, merely receives the action, is acted upon, is loved.

<sup>4</sup> Mood, or Mode, means manner, and relates to the manner in which the meaning of the verb is expressed, as will be seen by observing the force of the several Moods.

I. The Indicative Mood either asserts something as a fact or inquires after the fact:

Legit, he is reading. Legitne, is he reading? Servius rēgnāvit, Scrvius reigned. Quis ego sum, who am I?

- II. The Subjunctive Mood expresses not an actual fact, but a possibility or conception. It is best translated '—
- 1. Sometimes by the English auxiliaries, 2 let, may, might, should, would:

Amèmus patriam, let us love our country. Sint beati, may they be hippy. Quaerat quispiam, some one may inquire. Hée namo discrit, no one would say this. Ego cénsiam, I should think, or I am inclined to think. Énititur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Domum ubi habitāret, lēgit, he selectet a house where he might dwell.

2. Sometimes by the English *Indicative*, especially by the Future forms with *shall* and *will*:

Huie cedāmus, shall we yield to this one? Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Dubito num debeam, I doubt whether I ought. Quaesivit si liceret, he inquired whether it was lawful.

3. Sometimes by the *Imperative*, especially in prohibitions:

Scribere në piyrëre, do not neglect to write. Në transieris Ibërum, do not cross the Ebro.

4. Sometimes by the English Infinitive: 4

Contendit ut rineat, he strives to conquer. Missi sunt qui consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo.

III. The Imperative Mood expresses a command or an entreaty:

Jüstitiam cole, practise justice. To no code malis, no not yield to misfortunes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The use and proper translation of the Subjunctive must be learned from the Syntax. A few Illustrations are here given to aid the learner or an derstanding the Paradigms of the Verbs; see 477-530.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This is generally the proper translation in simple sentences and in principal clauses (483), and sometimes even in subordunate clauses (490).

<sup>3</sup> Or, he shires to conquin; see 4 below, with foot-note 4.

<sup>4</sup> The English has a few remnants of the Subjunctive Moon, which may also be used in translating the Latin Subjunctive: Utinam prosem, would that I wear ADLE.

Observe, however, that the Infinitive here is not the translation of the Subjunctive alone, but of the Subjunctive with its subject and connective; ut vincat, to conquer (lit., that he may conquer); qui consumerent, to consult (lit., who should or would consult).

#### III. TENSES.

# 197. There are six tenses:

- I. THREE TENSES FOR INCOMPLETE ACTION:
- 1. Present: amő, I love, I am loving.
- 2. Imperfeet: amābam, I was loving, I loved.
- 3. Future: amābō, I shall love, I will love.
- II. THREE TENSES FOR COMPLETED ACTION.
- 1. Perfect: amāvī, I have loved, I loved.
- 2. Pluperfect: amāveram, I had loved.
- 3. Future Perfect: amāverō, I shall have loved.2

Note 1.—The Latin Perfect sometimes corresponds to our Perfect with have (have loved), and is called the Iresent Perfect or Perfect Definite; and sometimes to our Imperfect or Past (loved), and is called the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite.<sup>3</sup>

Note 2.—The Indicative Mood has all the six tenses; the Subjunctive has the Present, Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect; the Imperative, the Present and Future only.

# 198. PRINCIPAL AND HISTORICAL.—Tenses are also distinguished as—

- I. PRINCIPAL OF PRIMARY TENSES:
- 1. Present: amő, I love.
- 2. Present Perfect: amārī, I have loved.3
- 2. Future: amābŏ, I shall love.
- 4. Future Perfect: amāvero, I shall have loved.
- II. HISTORICAL OF SECONDARY TENSES:
- 1. Imperfect: amābam, I was loving.
- 2. Historical Perfect: amārī, I loved.3
- 3. Pluperfect: amāveram, I had loved.

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  Or, I do love. The English  $\dot{a}id$  may also be used in translating the Imperfect and Perfect: I did love.

<sup>2</sup> Or, I will have loved.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Thus the Latin Perfect combines within itself the force and use of two distinct tenses—the Perfect proper, seen in the Greek Perfect, and the Aorist, seen in the Greek Aorist:  $\operatorname{am\bar{u}v} = \operatorname{ac}\phi i\lambda \eta \alpha_a$ , I have loved;  $\operatorname{am\bar{u}v} = \operatorname{c}\phi i\lambda \eta \sigma_a$ , I loved. The Historical Perfect and the Imperfect both represent the action as past, but the former regards it simply as a historical fact—I loved; while the latter regards it as in progress—I was loving.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The nice distinctions of tense have been fully developed only in the Indicative. In the Subjunctive and Imperative, the *time* of the action is less prominent and is less definitely marked.

VEPRS. 81

199. Numbers and Persons.—There are two numbers. SINGULAR and PLURAL, and three persons, FIRST, Sec-OND, and THIRD.

Note.—The various verbal forms which have voice, mood, tense, number, and person, make up the finite verb.

- 200. Among verbal forms are included the following verbal nouns and adjectives:
- I. The Infinitive is a verbal noun.<sup>2</sup> It is sometimes best translated by the English Infinitive, sometimes by the verbal noun in ING. and sometimes by the Indicative:

Exire ex urbe volo, I wish to go out of the city. Gestio scire omnia, I long TO KNOW all things. Have seire juvat, to know these things affords pleasure. Peccare licet nemini, to sin is lawful for no one. Vincere 3 seis, you know how to conquer, or you understand conquering.3 Te dieunt esse 4 sapientem, they say that you ARE4 wise. Sentimus calire4 ignem, we perceive that fire is not.4 See also Syntax, 532-539.

II. The Gerund gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the second declension, used only in the genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative singular. It corresponds to the English verbal noun in 1NG:

Amandi, of Loving. Amandi causa, for the sake of Loving. Ars vivendī, the art of living. Cupidus te audiendī, desirous of hearing you. Ūtilis bibendo, useful for drinkino. Ad discendum propensus, inclined to learn,3 or to learning. Mens discendo alitur, the mind is nourished by learning. See also Syntax, 541-544.

III. The Supine gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the fourth declension. It has a form in um and a form in u:

Amatum, to love, for loving. Amatu, to be loved, for loving, in

3 Observe that the infinitive vincere may be translated by the English infinitive, to

conquer, or by the verbal noun, conquering.

<sup>1</sup> As in Nonns: see 44.

<sup>2</sup> The Infinitive has the characteristics both of verbs and of nouns. As a verb, it governs oblique cases and takes adverbial modifiers; as a noun, it is itself governed. In origin it is a verbal noun in the Dative or Locative. See Jolly, pp. 179-200.

Observe that the infinitives esse and calire are translated by the indicative are and is (is hot); and that the Acc. te, the subject of esse, is translated by the Nom. you, the subject of are; and that the Acc. ignem, the subject of calere, is translated by the Nom. fire, the subject of is.

<sup>5</sup> Occasionally the Gerund, especially with a preposition, may be thus translated by the English infinitire.

LOVING. Auxilium postulātum vēnit, he came to ask aid. Difficile dictū est, it is difficult to tell. See Syntax, 545-547.

Note.—The Supine in um is an Accusative in form, while the Supine in  $\bar{u}$  may be either a Dative or an Ablative; see 116.

IV. The Participle in Latin, as in English, gives the meaning of the verb in the form of an adjective. It is sometimes best translated by the English *Participle* or *Infinitive*, and sometimes by a *Clause*:

Amāns, Loving. Amātūrus, about to love. Amātus, loved. Amandus, deserving to be loved. Platō scrībēns mortuus est, Plato died while writing, or while he was writing. Sōl oriens diem conficit, the sun rising, or when it rises, 2 causes the day. Rediit bēllī cāsum tentātūrus, he returned to try (lit., about to try) the fortune of war. In amīcīs ēligendīs, 3 in selecting friends. See Syntax, 548-550.

Note.—A Latin verb may have four participles: two in the Active, the Present and the Future, amāns, amātūrus; and two in the Passive, the Perfect and the Gerundive, amātus, amandus.

#### CONJUGATION.

201. Regular verbs are inflected, or conjugated, in four different ways, and are accordingly divided into Four Conjugations, distinguished from each other by the stem characteristics or by the endings of the Infinitive, as follows:

	CHARACTERISTICS.	INFINITIVE ENDINGS.
Conj. I.	ā	ã-re
II.	ē	ë-re
III.	e	e-re
IV.	î	î-re

202. PRINCIPAL PARTS.—The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Supine are called from their importance the *Principal Parts* of the verb.

¹ Participles are verbs in force, but adjectives in form and inflection. As verbs, they govern oblique cases; as adjectives, they agree with nouns.

<sup>2</sup> Or by its rising.

<sup>3</sup> Sometimes called the Future Passive Participle. In agreement with a noun, it is often best translated like a gerund governing that noun; see 544.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The Four Conjugations are only varieties of one general system of inflection, as the differences between them have been produced in the main by the union of different final letters in the various stems with one general system of suffixes; see Comparative View of Conjugations, 213-216.

Note 1.—In the inflection of verbs it is found convenient to recognize four stems:

- The Verb-Stem, which is the basis of the entire conjugation. This is often called simply the Stem.
- Three Special Stems, the Present Stem, the Perfect Stem, and the Supine Stem.

NOTE 2.—The Special Stems are formed from the Verb-Stem, unless they are identical with it.

- 203. The Extire Conjugation of any regular verb may be readily formed from the Principal Parts by means of the proper endings.<sup>2</sup>
- 1. Stm, I am, is used as an auxiliary in the passive voice of regular verbs. Accordingly, its conjugation, though quite irregular, must be given at the outset. The Principal Parts are—

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. sum, I am, esse, to be, fui, I have been.

Note 1 .- Sum has no Supine.

Note 2.—Two independent stems or roots 3 are used in the conjugation of this verb, viz.: (1) es, seen in s-um (for es-um) and in es-se, and (2) fu, seen in fu- $\bar{\imath}$ .

<sup>1</sup> For the treatment of Stems, see **249-256**. In many verbs the stem is itself derived from a more primitive form called a *Root*. For the distinction between *roots* and *stems*, and for the manner in which the latter are formed from the former, see **313-318**.

<sup>2</sup> In the Paradigms of regular verbs, the endings which distinguish the various forms are separately indicated, and should be carefully noticed. In the parts derived from the present stem (222, I.) each ending contains the characteristic vowel.

3 The forms of irregular verbs are often derived from different roots. Thus in English, am, was, been; go, went, gone. Indeed, the identical roots used in the conjugation of sum are in constant use in our ordinary speech. The root cs, Greek  $\dot{\epsilon}e$ , originally ae, is seen in am (for as-mi), art (for as-t), are (for as-e); the root fn, Greek  $\phi$ 0, originally bn4, is seen in be (for bhe), been. The close relationship existing between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English is seen in the following comparative forms;  $\dot{\epsilon}\sigma-ot$  is Homeric, and  $\dot{\epsilon}-rt$  Doric:

SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	English.
as-mi	εί-μί	s-um	n-m
as-i	ἐσ-σί	es	ar-t
as-ti	ἐσ-τί	es-t	is
s-mas	έσ-μέν for έσ-μές	s-umus	ar-o
s-tha	ἐσ-τέ	es-tis	nr-o
s-anti	è-ντί for èσ-ντί	s-unt	ar-e

Every verbal form is thus made by appending to the stem, or root, a pronominal ending meaning I, thou, he, etc. Thus mi, seen in the English me, means I. It is retained in as - mi and  $\epsilon i - \mu i$ , but shortened to m in s - u - m and a - m. Ti, meaning he, is preserved in as - ti and  $\epsilon \sigma - ti$ , but shortened to t in  $\epsilon s - t$  and lost in  $\epsilon s$ . The stem also undergoes values changes: in Sanskrit it is as, sometimes shortened to s; in Greek  $\epsilon s$ , sometimes shortened to  $\epsilon$ ; in Latin  $\epsilon s$ , sometimes shortened to s, as in Sanskrit; in English a, ar, or  $\epsilon s$ .

# 204. Sum, I am.—Stems, es, fu.

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	Pres. Inf.	PERF. IND.	Supine.1
sum,	es <b>se</b> ,	fu <b>ī,</b>	_

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

	SINGULAR.	PRESENT TE	NSE. PLI	TRAL.
stem,2	I am,		sumus,	we are,
es,	thou art,3		es <b>tis</b> ,	you are,
es <b>t</b> ,	he is ;		sunt,	they are.
		Imperfect		
ernwi,	I was,		erāmus,	we were,
erās,	thou wast,3		erātis,	you were,
erat,	he was;		erant,	they were.
		FUTURE.		
$\mathrm{er}\mathbf{\check{o}},^{4}$	I shall be,5		erimus,	we shall be,
er <b>is</b> ,	thou wilt be,		eritis,	you will be,
er <b>ži</b> ,	he will be;		er <b>unt</b> ,	they will be.
		Perfect.		
fu <b>ī</b> ,	I have been,5	1	fuimus,	we have been,
fu <b>īstī</b> ,	thou hast been,		fu <b>īstis</b> ,	you have been,
fu <b>it</b> ,	he has been ;		fu <b>ērunt</b> , } fu <b>ēre</b> , }	they have been.

#### PLUPERFECT.

fueram	I had been,	fu <b>erāmus</b>	, we had been,
fu <b>erās</b> ,	thou hadst been,	fu <b>erātis</b> ,	you had been,
fu <b>erat</b> ,	he had been;	fu <b>erant</b> ,	they had been.

# FUTURE PERFECT.

fu <b>erō</b> ,	I shall have been,	fu <b>eržmus</b>	, we shall have been,
fu <b>er</b> ĭs,	thou wilt have been,	fu <b>erītis</b> ,	you will have been,
fuerit,	he will have been;	fuerint,	they will have been.

<sup>1</sup> The Supine is wanting.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Sum is for esum, eram for esam. Whenever s of the stem es comes between two vowels, e is dropped, as in esum, esum

<sup>3</sup> Or you are, and in the Imperfect, you were; thou is confined mostly to solemn discourse.

<sup>4</sup> In verbs, final o, marked ŏ, is generally long.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Or, Future, I will be; Perfect, I was; see 197, note 1.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

	SINGULAR, PRES	SENT.	LURAL,
sim,	may I be,1	sīmus,	let us be,
sīs,	mayst thou be,2	sītis,	be ye, may you be,
sit,	let him be, may he be ;	sīnt,	let them be.
	IMPER	FECT.	
essem,	I should be,1	essēmus,	we should be,
es <b>sēs</b> ,	thou wouldst be,	essētis,	you would be,
es <b>set</b> ,	he would be;	es <b>sent</b> ,	they would be.
	Peri	ECT.	
fu <b>erim</b> ,	I may have been,1	fuerimus.	we may have been,
fueris,	thou mayst have been,	fuc <b>ritis</b> ,	you may have been,
fuerit,	he may have been;	fuer int,	they may have been.
	PLUPE	RFECT.	
fuissem,	I should have been,	fuissēmus,	we should have been,
fuissēs,	thou wouldst have been,	fuissētis,	you would have been,
fuisset,	he would have been;	fuissent,	they would have been.
	IMPER.	ATIVE.	

Pres.	es,	be thou,	este,	be yc.
Fut.	es <b>tō</b> ,	thou shalt be,3	es <b>tōte</b> ,	ue shall be,
	es <b>t</b> õ,	he shall be; 3	suatõ,	they shall be.

#### INFINITIVE.

Participle.

Pres. esse, to be.

Perf. fuisse, to have been.

Fut. futurus esse,4 to be about

to be.

Fut. futurus.4 about to be.

- 1. In the Paradigm all the forms beginning with e or s are from the stem es; all others from the stem fu.5
- 2. Rare Forms:—forem, fores, foret, forent, fore, for essem, esses, esset, essent, futurus esse; siem, sies, siet, sient, or fuum, fuas, fuat, fuant, for sim, sie, sit, sint.

2 Or be thou, or may you be.

- <sup>2</sup> The Fut. may also be rendered like the Pres., or with let: Le thou; let him be.
- \* Futurus is declined like bonus. So in the Infinitive : fut rus, a, um isse,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> On the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II., and remember that it is often best rendered by the Indicative. Thus, sim may often be rendered I am, and fuerim, I have been.

<sup>6</sup> Es and fu are roots as well as s'ems. As the basis of this paradigm they are properly stems, but as they are not derived from more primitive forms, they are in themselves roots.

# FIRST CONJUGATION: A VERBS.

205. ACTIVE VOICE.—Amo, I love.

Verb Stem and Present Stem. amā.1

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUPINE.
am <b>ō</b> ,	am <b>āre</b> ,	am <b>āvī</b> ,	am <b>ātum.</b>

#### Indicative Mood.

	SINGULAR.	Present Tense.	PLURAL.
$\operatorname{am}\mathbf{\check{\Phi}},^{1}$	$I\ love,^2$	amālelius,	we love,
am <b>ās</b> ,	you love,3	amātis,	you love,
am <b>at</b> ,	he loves;	amsteat,	they love
		<b>T</b>	

#### IMPERFECT.

am <b>ābam</b> ,	I was loving,	amābāmus,	we were loving,		
am <b>ābās</b> ,	you were loving,	amābātis,	you were loving,		
am <b>ābat</b> ,	he was loving;	am <b>ābant</b> ,	they were loving.		
FUTURE.					

am <b>ābō</b> ,	I shall love,4	amābimus,	we shall love,
amābis,	you will love,	am <b>ābit</b> £s,	you will love,
am <b>ābit</b> ,	he will love;	am <b>ābunt</b> ,	they will love.

#### Perfect.

amāvī,	I have loved,5	1	amāv <b>imus</b> ,	we have loved,
amāv <b>īstī</b> ,	you have loved,		amāvīstis,	you have loved,
amāvīt,	he has loved;	Ì	amāv <b>ērunt</b> ,	, $ar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{r}\mathbf{e}$ , they have loved.

#### PLUPERFECT.

amāv <b>eram</b> ,	I had loved,	amāv <b>erāmus</b>	, we had loved,
amāv <b>erās</b> ,	you had loved,	amāv <b>erātis</b> ,	you had loved,
amāv <b>erut</b> ,	he had loved;	amāv <b>erant</b> ,	they had loved.

#### FUTURE PERFECT.

amāv <b>erō</b> ,	I shall have loved,4	amāv <b>erīmus</b> ,	we shall have loved,
amāv <b>erīs</b> ,	you will have loved,	amāv <b>erītis</b> ,	you will have loved,
amāverit,	he wilt have loved;	amāv <b>erint</b> ,	they will have loved.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The final ā of the stem disappears in amo for ama-o, amem, amos, etc., for amaim, ama-78, etc. Also in the Pass. in amor for ama-or, amer, etc., for ama-ir, etc.; sec 23; 27. Final o, marked o, is generally long.

<sup>. 2</sup> Or I am loving, I do love. So in the Imperfect, I loved, I was loving, I did love. 2 Or thou lovest. So in the other tenses, thou wast loving, thou wilt love, etc.

<sup>4</sup> Or I will love. So in the Future Perfect, I shall have loved or I will have loved.

<sup>6</sup> Or I loval; see 197, note 1.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR.	Present.

may I love.1 amem, may you love. amēs. let him love : amet.

PLUBAL. amēmus. let us love, may you love. amētis. let them love. ament.

#### IMPEREFECT

I should love. amārem. amārēs, you would love. he would love : amāret.

amārēmus. we should love, amārētis. you would love. amärent. they would love.

#### Perfect.

amāverim. I may have loved.2 amāverīs. you may have loved. amāv**erit**. he may have loved;

amaverimus, we may have loved, amāverītis, you may have loved, amaverint, they may have loved.

#### PLUPERFECT.

amāvissem, I should have loved, | amāvissēmus, we should have loved, amāvissēs. amāvisset.

you would have loved, amavissetis, you would have loved, he would have loved : amavissent, they would have loved.

## IMPERATIVE.

Pres ama love thou :

lamäte. amātōte. love ye.

Fut. amato, thou shall love, amāto, he shall love ;

ue shall love. amantō. they shall love.

# Infinitive.

PARTICIPLE. Pres. amāns.4 lovina.

Pres. amare, to love. Perf. amavisse, to have loved.

Fut, amaturus esse, to be about Fut, amaturus, about to love.

to love.

# GERUND.

Supine.

Gen. amandī, of loving. Dat. amando. for loving,

Ace. amandum, loving, All, amando. by loving.

Aec. amātum, Abl. amātū,

to love, to love, be loved,

<sup>1</sup> On the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

Often best rendered I have loved. So in the Pluperfect, I had loved; see 196, II.

B Decline like bonus, 148.

<sup>4</sup> For declension, see 157.

# FIRST CONJUGATION: A VERBS.

206. PASSIVE VOICE.—Amor, I am loved.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, amā.

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND amor,

PRES. INF. amāri,

PERF. IND. amātus sum.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD

# PRESENT TENSE I am loved.

SINGHLAR amor amāris, or re amätur

amā bar

amābātur

PLURAL. am 20.522 22 22 20 am និសាសន៍សា 🖥 amsana tane

# IMPERFECT. I was loved.

amābāris, or re

amā bā men r amāloāminī amālantur

# FUTURE.

# I shall or will be loved.

amābor amāberis, or re amā.bitur

ama berran ... am fallbåren fra T am a lote raten re

# Perfect. I have been loved or I was loved.

# amātus sum 1

amātī sumus amātī estis amātī samt

# amātus es amātus est

PLUPERFECT. I had been loved.

amātus eram 1 amātus erās amātus erat

amātī erāmus amātī erātis amātī erant

# FUTURE PERFECT

I shall or will have been loved.

amātus erā 1 amātus eris amātus erit

amātī erimus amātī eritis amătī erunt

<sup>1</sup> Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc.: amātus fui for amātus cum. So fueram, fueras, etc., for eram, etc.: also fuero, etc., tor ero, etc.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PRESENT.

Man I be loved, let him be loved.1

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

amer amēris, or re amētur ameminī amentur

#### IMPERFECT.

I should be loved, he would be loved,1

amārer amārēris, or re amārētur am**ärēmur** am**ārēminī** am**ārentur** 

#### PERFECT

I may have been loved, or I have been loved.1

amātus sim <sup>2</sup> amātus sīs amātus sit amāt**ī sīmus** amāt**ī sītis** amāt**ī sint** 

#### PLUPERFECT.

I should have been loved, he would have been loved.1

amātus essem<sup>2</sup> amātus essēs amātus esse*t*  amātī essēmus amātī essētis amātī essent

# IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amare, be thou loved;
Fut. amator, thou shalt be loved,

am**āminī**, be ye loved.

amator, thou shart be loved;

amantor, they shall be loved.

#### INFINITIVE

Pres. amari, to be loved.

Perf. amatus esse,2 to have been loved.

Fut. amatum IrI, to be about to be loved

## PARTICIPLE.

Perf. amatus, having been loved.

Ger.3 amandus, to be loved, deserving to be loved.

<sup>1</sup> But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

Fuerim, fueria, etc., are sometimes used for sim, sis, etc.—So also fuissem, fuisses, etc., for essem, esses, etc.: rarely fuisse for esse.

<sup>8</sup> Ger. = Gerundive; see 200, IV., note,

# SECOND CONJUGATION: E VERBS.

207. ACTIVE VOICE.—Moneo, I advise.

VERB STEM, mon, moni; PRESENT STEM, monē.

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. Supine, moneo, monete, moneu, monitum.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

# PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. I advise. PLURAL.
monēō monēmus
monēs monētis
monet monent

#### IMPERFECT.

# I was advising, or I advised.

monēbam monēbāmus monēbās monēbātis monēbat monēbant

#### FUTURE.

## I shall or will advise.

monēbō monēbimus monēbis monēbitis monēbit monēbunt

#### PERFECT.

# I have advised, or I advised.

monuī monuimus
monuīsti monuīstis
monuīt monuērumt, or ēre

# PLUPERFECT.

# I had advised.

monueram monuerāmus
monuerās monuerātis
monuerat monueraut

# FUTURE PERFECT.

# I shall or will have advised.

monuero monuerimus
monueris monueritis
monuerit monuerint

# SUBJUNCTIVE

## PRESENT.

May I advise, let him advise.1

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

moneam moneās moneat

mon**eāmus** mon**eātis** moneant

#### IMPERFECT.

I should advise, he would advise.

monērem moneres monë**ret** 

mon**ērēmus** monērētis mon**ērent** 

## Perfect.

I may have advised, or I have advised.1

monuerim monueris monuerit

monuerimus monueritis monuerint

#### PLIPERFECT.

I should have advised, he would have advised.2

monuissem monuisses monuisset

monuissēmus monuissētis monuissent

#### IMPERATIVE.

advise thou : Pres. mone.

| monete. advise ye.

Fut. moneto, thou shalt advise. monēto. he shall advise : | monētote, ye shall advise, monento, they shall advise.

### INFINITIVE.

to advise.

Participle Pres. monens. advising.

Perf. monuisse, to have advised. Fut. moniturus esse, to be about

Fut. moniturus, about to advise.

to advise.

Pres. monere.

## SUPINE

GERUND. Gen. monendi. of advising. for advising,

Dat. monendö,

Ace. monendum, advising,

Acc. monitum, to advise,

Abl. moñendō. by advising. Abl. monita, to udvise, be advised.

<sup>1</sup> But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

<sup>2</sup> The Pluperfect, like the Perfect, is often rendered by the Indicative: I had adrised, you had advised, etc.

# SECOND CONJUGATION: E VERBS.

208. PASSIVE VOICE.—Moneor, I am advised.

VERB STEM, mon, moni; PRESENT STEM, monē.

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

moneture

Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

# PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

moneor moneris. or re

7

I am advised.
PLURAL.
mon**ēmur** 

mon**eminī** mon**emtur** 

IMPERFECT.

 ${\it I}$  was advised.

mon**ēbār**; or re mon**ēbār**; or re mon**ēkāmur** mon**ēkāminī** mon**ēkantur** 

## FUTURE.

# I shall or will be advised.

mon**ebor** mon**eberis**, or re mon**ebi**tur mon**&bimur** mon**&bimimī** mon**&bumiur** 

# PERFECT.

# I have been advised, I was advised.

monitus sum <sup>1</sup> monitus es monitus est

monit**ī sumus** monit**ī estis** monit**ī sumt** 

# PLUPERFECT.

# I had been advised.

monitus eran <sup>1</sup> monitus eras monitus eras monitī **erāmus** monit**ī erātis** monit**ī erant** 

#### FUTURE PERFECT

# I shall or will have been advised.

monitus erõ<sup>1</sup> monitus eris monitus erit monit**ī crimus** 

monitī eritis

<sup>1</sup> Sec 206, foot-notes.

## SUBJUNCTIVE

#### PRESENT.

May I be advised, let him be advised.

SINGULAR.

monear moneāris, or re moneātur

PLURAL.

mon**cāmur** moneāminī moneantur

#### IMPERFECT.

I should be advised, he would be advised,

monerer mon**ērēris**, or re mon**ērētur** 

mon**ērēmur** mon**ërëmini** mon**ërentur** 

#### Perfect.

I may have been advised, or I have been advised.

monitus sim 1 monitus sis monitus sit

monity simus monity stais monity Sint

#### PLUPERFECT.

I should have been advised, he would have been advised.2

monitus essem 1 monitus essēs monitus esset

monity essented moniti esactis moniti essent.

## IMPERATIVE.

Pres. monere, be thou advised; monemini, be ye advised.

Fut. monetor, thou shalt be ad-

vised.

monetor, he shall be advised; monentor, they shall be advised.

# INFINITIVE.

Pres. moneri, to be advised.

Perf. monitus esse, to have been | Perf. monitus, advised. advised.

Fut, monitum Tri, to be about to be advised.

# PARTICIPLE.

Ger. monendus, to be advised, deserving to be advised.

<sup>1</sup> See 206, foot-notes.

<sup>2</sup> Or I had been advised, you had been advised, etc.

# THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS.

209. ACTIVE VOICE.—Regő, I rule.

VERB STEM, reg; PRESENT STEM, rege.1

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. Supine. rego, regere, rexi,2 rectum.2

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

# PRESENT TENSE.

regis regit regunt

I rule.

PLURAL.

regis regitis

regit

IMPERFECT.

# I was ruling, or I ruled.

regēbam regēbāmus regēbās regēbātis regēbat regēbant

# FUTURE.

# I shall or will rule.

regām regēmus regēs regētis regēt regent

# PERFECT.

I have ruled, or I ruled.

rēxī rēxīmus rēxīstī rēxīstis rēxīt rēxērumt, or **ēre** 

# Pluperfect. I had ruled.

rēxerām rēxerāmus rēxerās rēxerātis rēxerat rēxerant

# FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have ruled.

rēzerō rēzerīmus rēzerīs rēzerītis rēzerīt rēzerint

¹ The characteristic is a variable vowel—ŏ, u, e, i: regŏ, regunt, regere, regis; Curtius calls it the thematic rowel; see Curtius, I., p. 199, but on ŏ, see also Meyer, 441.
² See 254; 30, 33, 1.

# SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PRESENT.

May I rule, let him rule,1

	20204 2 7 10104 100 10	
SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
. regam	1	reg <b>āmu</b>
$\operatorname{reg}\mathbf{\bar{a}}\mathbf{s}$		reg <b>ātis</b>
regat		regant
-		

## IMPERFECT.

I should rule, he would rule.

regerem	regerēmus
reg <b>erēs</b>	reg <b>erētis</b>
regeret	regerent

#### Perfect.

I may have ruled, or I have ruled.

rēx <b>erim</b>	rēx <b>erīmus</b>
rēx <b>erĭs</b>	rēx <b>erītis</b>
rēx <b>erit</b>	rēxerint

#### PLUPERFECT.

I should have ruled, he would have ruled.

rēxissem	1	rēx <b>issēmus</b>
rēx <b>issēs</b>		rēxlss <b>ētis</b>
rēxisset		rēxissent

# IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	reg e,	rule thou;	regite,	rule ye.
Ful.	regitő,	thou shalt rule,	regitōte,	ye shall rule,
	regitō,	he shall rule;	reguntŏ,	they shall ruic.

Infinitive.	Par	TICIPLE.	
Pres. regere, to rule. Perf. rexisse, to have ruled.		Pres. reg <b>ēns</b> ,	ruling.

Fut. recturus esse, to be about Fut. recturus, about to rule.

GERUND.	Supine.
Gen. regendl, of ruling,	
Dat. regendo, for ruling,	
Acc. regendum, ruling,	Aec. rēctum, to rule,
Abl. regendo, by ruling.	Abl. rēctū, to rule, be ruled.

<sup>1</sup> But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196. II.

# THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS.

210. PASSIVE VOICE.—Regor, I am ruled.

Verb Stem, reg; Present Stem, rege.1

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind

Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. rēc**tus¹ sum.** 

# Indicative Mood.

#### PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

reg**or** reg**eris**, *or* **re** reg**itur**  I am ruled.

PLURAL. regimu**r** regimuinī regumtur

# IMPERFECT.

I was ruled,

reg**ēbar** reg**ēbāri**s, *or* **re** reg**ēbātur**  regēbāmur regēbāminī regēbantur

# FUTURE.

# I shall or will be ruled.

regar reg**ēris**, or **re** reg**ētur**  reg**ēmur** reg**ēmimā** reg**emimr** 

## Perfect.

# I have been ruled, or I was ruled.

vēctus sum² rēctus es rēctus est rēctī sumus rēctī estis rēctī smrat

# Pluperfect. I had been ruled.

rēctus eram <sup>2</sup> rēctus erās rēctus erat rēctī **erāmus** rēctī **erātis** rēctī **erant** 

# FUTURE PERFECT.

# I shall or will have been ruled.

rēctus erō<sup>2</sup> rēctus eris rēctus erit rēctī **erimus** rēct**ī eritis** rēct**ī erunt** 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See 209, foot-notes.

<sup>2</sup> See 206, foot-notes.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PRESENT.

May I be ruled, let him be ruled,

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

regar regaris, or re regāmur regāminī regantur

regaris, or regatur

## IMPERFECT.

I should be ruled, he would be ruled.

reg**erer** reg**erēris**, *or* **re** reg**erētur**  regerēmur regerēminī regeren**t**ur

# Perfect.

I may have been ruled, or I have been ruled,

rēctus sīm¹ rēctus sīs rēctus sīt rēctī sīmus rēctī sītis rēctī sint

## PLUPERFECT.

I should have been ruled, he would have been ruled.

rēctus essem 1 rēctus essēs rēctus esset rēctī essēmus rēctī essētis rēctī essent

# IMPERATIVE.

Pres. regere, be thou ruled;

| regiminī, be ye ruled.

Fut. regitor, thou shall be ruled, regitor, he shall be ruled;

reguntor, they shall be ruled.

# INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. regī, to be ruled.

Perf. rectus esse,1 to have been ruled.

Perf. rectus, ruled.

Fut. rectum TrI, to be about to be ruled.

Ger. regendus, to be ruled, deserving to be ruled.

<sup>1</sup> See 206, foot-notes.

# FOURTH CONJUGATION: I VERBS.

# 211. ACTIVE VOICE.—Audio, I hear.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, audi.

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. Supine. audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītum.

## Indicative Mood.

#### PRESENT TENSE.

singular. I hear. Plural.
audīō audīmus
audīs audītis
audīt audēmt

# IMPERFECT.

# I was hearing, or I heard.

audiēbam audiēbāmus audiēbās audiēbātis audiēbat audiēbant

## FUTURE. .

# I shall or will hear.

audiam audiemus audies audietis audiet audient

#### Perfect.

# I have heard, or I heard.

audīvī audīvīmus audīvīstī audīvīstīs audīvīt audīvērunt, or ēre

#### PLUPERFECT.

# I had heard.

andīveram audīverāmus audīverās audīverātis audīverat audīverant

## FUTURE PERFECT.

# I shall or will have heard.

audīverō audīverīmus audīverīs audīverītis audīverit audīverint

# SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PRESENT

May I hear, let him hear.1

SINGULAR PLUBAL andiam andiämus audiās andiatis audiant. audisern#

#### IMPERFECT

I should hear, he would hear.

andīrem andī rēmus and Traes audīrētis audīret audirent

#### PERFECT

I may have heard, or I have heard.

andīv**erim** audīverīmus audiveris audīverītis audiverit audiverint

#### PLUPERFECT.

I should have heard, he would have heard.

audīvissem audīviss**ēmus** audīvissēs audīvissē**tis** andivisset andivissent

## IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audī. hear thou: audīte, hear ye. Fut. audīto, thou shalt hear, audītote, ye shall hear, audīto, he shall hear ; andiunto, they shall hear.

#### INFINITIVE.

Participle. Pres. audiens, hearing. Pres. audīre.

Perf. audivisse, to have heard. Fut. auditurus esse, to be about Fut. anditurus, about to hear. to hear.

## GERUND.

# SUPINE.

Gen. audiendī, of hearing, for hearing, Dat. audiendo,

Acc. audiendum, hearing, Acc. audītum, to hear, Abl. audiendo, by hearing. Abl. andītā, to hear, be heard,

But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

# FOURTH CONJUGATION: I VERBS.

212. PASSIVE VOICE.—Audior, I am heard.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, audī.

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. audior. Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. audītus sum.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

# PRESENT TENSE.

singular.
audior
audiris, or re
auditur

I am heard.

Imperfect.

I was heard.

audiēbar audiēbāris, *or* re audiēbātur aud**iēbāmur** aud**iēbāminī** aud**iēbantur** 

PLERAL.

audiuntur

audīmur audīminī

## FUTURE.

# I shall or will be heard.

audiar audiēris, or re audiētur audi**ēmur** audi**ēminī** audi**entur** 

#### Perfect.

# I have been heard, or I was heard.

audītus sum 1 audītus es audītus est audītī sumus audītī estis audītī sunt

## PLUPERFECT.

# I had been heard.

audītus eram¹ audītus erās audītus erat audīt**ī erāmus** audīt**ī erātis** audīt**ī erant** 

#### FUTURE PERFECT.

#### I shall or will have been heard.

audītus erō¹ audītus eris audītus erit audītī erimus audītī eritis audītī erunt

<sup>1</sup> See 206, foot-notes.

## Surjunctive.

#### PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

audiar

aud**iāmur** audiāminī

audiāris, or re aud**iātur** 

audiamtur

## IMPEREFECT

I should be heard, he would be heard,

audīrer audīrēris, or re audīrētur

audīrēmur audīrēminī audirentur

#### Perfect.

I may have been heard, or I have been heard.

andītus sim 1 audit**us sīs** audītus sit

audīt**ī sīmus** audītī sītis audītī sint

#### PLUPERFECT.

I should have been heard, he would have been heard,

anditus essem ! audītus essēs auditus esset

auditī essēmus audītī essētis audītī essent

#### IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audire. be thou heard ;

| audīmimī, be ye heard.

Fut, auditor, thou shalt be heard,

auditor, he shall be heard; audiuntor, they shall be heard.

# INFINITIVE.

Pres. audiri, to be heard.

Perf. auditus esse, to have been | Perf. auditus, heard. heard.

Fut. auditum Iri, to be about to be heard.

# Participle.

Ger. audiendus, to be heard, deserving to be heard.

102 VERBS.

# COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS. 213. ACTIVE VOICE.

# PRESENT SYSTEM.

# Indicative Mood.

			Presi	ENT.		
am	-ŏ	-ās,	-at;	-āmus,	-ātis,	-ant.
mon	-еŏ <b>,</b>	-ēs,	-et;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.
reg	-ŏ	-is,	-it ;	-imus,	-itis,	-unt.
aud	-iŏ,	-īs,	-it;	-īmus,	-ītis,	-iunt.
			IMPERI	FECT.		
am	-ābam,	-ābās,	-ābat ;	-ābāmus,	-ābātis,	-ābant.
mon	-ēbam,	-ēbās,	-ēbat ;	-ēbāmus,	-ēbātis,	-ēbant.
reg	-ēbam,	-ēbās,	-ēbat ;	-ēbāmus,	-ēbātis,	-ēbant.
aud	-iēbam,	-iēbās,	-iēbat ;	-iēbāmus,	-iēbātis,	-iēbant,
			Futu	RE.		
am	-ābŏ,	-ābis,	-ābit ;	-ābimus,	-ābitis,	-ābunt.
mon	-ēbŏ,	-ēbis,	-ēbit ;	-ēbimus,	-ēbitis,	-ēbunt.
reg	-am,	-ēs,	-et ;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.
aud	-iam,	-iēs,	-iet;	-iēmus,	-iētis,	-ient.
			Subjune	CTIVE.		
			Prese			
am	-em,	-ēs,	-et;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.
mon	-eam,	-eās,	-eat;	-eāmus,	-eātis,	-eant.
reg	-am,	-ās,	-at ;	-āmus,	-ātis,	-ant.
aud	-iam,	-iās,	-iat;	-iāmus,	-iātis,	-iant.
			Imperi	ECT.		
am	-ārem,	-ārēs,	-āret;	-ārēmus,	-ārētis,	-ārent.
mon	-ērem,	-ērēs,	-ēret;	-ērēmus,	-ērētis,	-ērent.
reg	-erem,	-erēs,	-eret;	-erēmus,	-erētis,	-erent.
aud	- ${f irem},$	-īrēs,	-îret ;	-īrēmus,	-īrētis,	-ĩrent.
			IMPERA	TIVE.		
		RESENT.			FUTURE.	
SINGU		PLURAL.		ULAR.	PLU	
am	-ā, -	-āte;	-ātŏ,	-ātŏ;	-ātōte,	-antō.
mon	-ē,	-ēte;	-ētō,	-ētŏ; -itŏ;	-ētōte,	-entő.
reg	-e,	-ite;	-itŏ, ≅tŏ	-110 ; - <b>ī</b> tŏ ;	-itōte,	-untō.
aud	-1,	-îte;	-ītō,	-110;	-ītōte,	-iuntŏ.
$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{R}\mathbf{I}}$	es. Infin	ITIVE.	Pre	s. Participi	LE. (	JERUND.
am		-āre;		-āns;		-andī.
mol	n	-ēre;		-ēns;		-endī.
reg		-ere;		-ēns;		-endī.
aud		-îre;		-iēns;		-iendī.
Note.—Verbs in to of Conj. III. have certain endings of Conj. IV.; see 217.						

<sup>1</sup> For the Present System, see 222, I.

# COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

# 214, PASSIVE VOICE.

# PRESENT SYSTEM.

# INDICATIVE MOOD. PRESENT.

am mon reg aud	-or, -eor, -or,	-āris -ēris -eris -īris	or āre,¹ or ēre, or ere, or īre,	-ātur; -ētur; -itur; -ītur;	-āmur, -ēmur, -imur, -īmur,	-āminī, -ēminī, -iminī, -īminī,	-antur. -entur. -untur. -iuntur.
				IMPERFECT.			
am mon reg aud	-ābar, -ēbar, -ēbar, -iēbar,	-ēbāris -ēbāris	or ābāre, or ēbāre, or ēbāre, or iēbāre,	-ābātur; -ēbātur; -ēbātur; -iēbātur;	-ābāmur, -ēbāmur, -ēbāmur, -iēbāmur,	-ābāminī, -ēbāminī, -ēbāminī,	-ēbantur.
auu	-iebai,	-icoaris	or lebate,	,	-rebailiur,	-icoamin,	-icoantui.
	-1.	-1		FUTURE.	-1.*	-1.11	~1
mon reg	-ābor, -ēbor, -ar,	-ēberis -ēris	or ābere, or ēbere, or ēre,	-ābitur; -ēbitur; -ētur;	-ābimur, -ēbimur, -ēmur,	-ābiminī, -ēbiminī, -ēminī,	-ābuntur. -ēbuntur. -entur.
aud	-ıar,	-iēris	or iëre,	-iētur ;	-iēmur,	-iēminī,	-ientur.
			St	BJUNCTIV	E.		
				Present.			
am	-er,	-ēris	or ēre,	-ētur ;	-ēmur,	-ēminī,	-entur.
mon	-ear,	-eāris	or eāre,	-eātur;	-eāmur,	-eāminī,	eantur
reg	-ar,	-āris	or are,	-ātur ;	-āmur,	-āminī,	-antur.
aud	-iar,	-iāris	or iāre,	-iātur ;	-iāmur,	-iāminī,	-iantur.
				IMPERFECT.			
am	-ārer,	-ārēris	<i>or</i> ārēre,	-ārētur ;	-ārēmur,	-ārēminī,	-ārentur.
mon	-ērer,	-ērēris	<i>or</i> ērēre,	-ērētur ;	-ērēmur,	-ērēminī,	-ërentur.
reg	-erer,	-erēris	or erēre,	-erētur ;	-erēmur,	-erēmiuī,	-erentur.
aud	-īrer,	-īrēris	<i>or</i> īrēre,	-īrētur ;	-īrēmur,	-īrēminī,	-îrentur.
			T	IPERATIV	E		
	PRESE			FUTURE.			
BINGUI		PLUBAI -äuninī		SINGU	-ātor ;	PLU	antor.
am mon	-āre, -ēre,	-ammi -ēminī		-ātor, -ētor,	-ator;		-antor.
reg	-ere,	-imini ;		-itor,	-itor;		-untor.
aud	-īre,	-Imini :		-ītor,	-itor;		-iuntor.
aud	-110,	-11011111	•	-1101	-1.01,		-runtor.
	$P_{\mathbf{F}}$	res. Ini	FINITIVE.			GERUNI	OIVE.
	am		-ārī ;			-andus	
	1110	11	-ērī ;			-endus	
	reg		-ī ;			-endus	
	au	1	-īrī;			-iendu:	3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In these and the following endings re takes the place of ris: āris or āre, ābāris or ābāre. Re is formed from ris by dropping final s and then changing final i to e; see 36, 5; 24, 1, note; also 237.

# COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

# 215. ACTIVE VOICE.

# PERFECT SYSTEM.

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

Perfect. amāv -īstī, -it; -imus, -īstis, -ērunt, ēre.<sup>2</sup> monu amāv Pluperfect.
monu -erās, -erat; -erāmus, -erātis, -erant.  $\max_{\substack{\text{rex}\\ \text{rex}\\ \text{audiv}}} \text{Future Perfect.}$ SUBJUNCTIVE. amāv monu rēx audīv  $\begin{cases} & \text{Perfect.} \\ \text{-erim,} & \text{-eris,} & \text{-erit;} & \text{-erimus,} & \text{-eritis,} & \text{-erint.} \end{cases}$ amāv monu rēx -issem, -issēs, -isset; -issēmus, -issētis, -issent. andīv PERFECT INFINITIVE. amāv monu rēx -isse. SUPINE SYSTEM.1 FUT. INFINITIVE. FUT. PARTICIPLE. SUPINE. amāt monit | -ūrus esse. -ūrus. -um, -ū. rēet

audīt

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For the Perfect System, see 222, II.; for the Supine System, 222, III.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> From the comparative view presented in 213-216, it will be seen that the four conjugations differ from each other only in the formation of the *Principal Parts* and in the endings of the *Present System*. See also 201, foot-note.

# COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

# 216. PASSIVE VOICE.

## SUPINE SYSTEM.

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

### Perfect. 3māt monit -us es, -us est; -ī¹ sumus, -ī estis, -ī sunt. -us sum. andīt PLUPERFECT. amāt -us eram, -us erās, -us erat; -ī erāmus, -ī erātis, -ī erant. monit audīt FUTURE PERFECT. amāt monit -us eris, -us erit; -ī erimus, -ī eritis, -I erunt. -us crŏ. andīt SUBJUNCTIVE. Perfect. amāt monit -us sīs, -us sit; -ī sīmus, -ī sītis, -ī sint. -us sim. rēct audīt PLUPERFECT. amāt -us essem, -us esses, -us esset; -ī essemus, -ī essetis, -ī essent. audīt INFINITIVE. FUTURE. Perfect. amāt monit ·um îrî. -us esse. audīt PERFECT PARTICIPLE. amāt monit rēct andīt

<sup>1</sup> In the plural, -us becomes -ī: amāt-ī sumus, etc.

- 217. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form the Present Indicative in iŏ, ior, like verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. They are inflected with the endings of the Fourth wherever those endings have two successive vowels. These verbs are—
- 1. Cupiš, to take; cupiš, to desire; faciš, to make; fodiš, to dig; fugiš, to flee; jaciš, to throw; pariš, to bear; quatiš, to shake; rapiš, to seize; sapiš, to be wise, with their compounds.
- 2. The compounds of the obsolete verbs, lació, to entice, and speció, to look; allició, illició, pellició, etc.; aspició, conspició, etc.
- 3. The Deponent Verbs: gradior, to go; morior, to die; patior, to suffer; see 231.

# 218. ACTIVE VOICE.—Capio, I take.

PRES. IND.

PRES. INF.

VERB STEM, cap; PRESENT STEM, cape.9

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PERF. IND.

SUPINE.

	capiŏ,	capere,	сēрī,	eaptum.	
		Indicativ	E MOOD.		
	SINGULAR.	Present	TENSE.	PLURAL.	
	capiŏ, eapis, capit	;	eapimus, c	apitis, capiunt.	
		Імрег	RFECT.		
۰	capiēbam, -iēbās,	-iēbat ;	capiēbāmu	s, -iēbātis, -iēbant.	
		Fut	URE.		
	capiam, -iēs, -iet;	[	eapiēmus,	-iētis, -ient.	
		Peri	FECT.		
	cēpī, -īstī, -it;	I	eēpimus, -īstis, -ērunt, or ēre.		
		PLUPE	RFECT.		
	ceperam, -eras, -erat;		cēperāmus, -erātis, -erant.		
		FUTURE	Perfect.		
	cēperō, -eris, -erit	;	cēperīmus,	-eritis, -erint.	
		Subjun	CTIVE.		
		Pres	SENT.		
	capiam, -iās, -iat;	l	capiāmus,	-iātis, -iant.	
		IMPER	RFECT.		
	caperem, -erēs, -c	ret;	caperēmus	, -erētis, -erent.	
		Peri	FECT.		
	cēperim, -erīs, -er	it ;	cēperīmus,	-erĭtis, -erint.	
		PLUPE	RFECT.		

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Speciō occurs, but is exceedingly rare.

cēpissem, -issēs, -isset;

cēpissēmus, -issētis, -issent.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> With variable vowel—e, i: cape, capi.

#### IMPERATIVE.

	IMPERATIVE.	
SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Pres. cape;	1	capite.
Fut. capitŏ, capitŏ;		capitōte, capiuntŏ.
Infinitive.		Participle.
Pres. capere. Perf. cēpisse.	Pr	cs. capiēns.
Fut. captūrus esse.	Fu	t. captūrus.
GERUND.	1	SUPINE.
Gen. capiendī,		

# 219. PASSIVE VOICE.—Capior, I am taken.

Dat, capiendo,

Abl. capiendo.

Acc. capiendum,

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Acc. captum.

Abl. captů.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	Perf. Ind
capior,	eapī,	eaptus sum.

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

## PRESENT TENSE.

singular.

capior, caperis, capitur; | capimur, capiminī, capiuntur.

IMPERFECT.

capiebar, -iebaris, -iebatur; | capiebamur, -iebaminī, -iebantur.

FUTURE.

capiar, -iēris, -iētur; | capiēmur, -iēminī, -ientur.

PERFECT.

eaptus sum, es, est; | eaptī sumus, estis, sunt.

PLUPERFECT.

captus eram, erās, erat; | captī erāmus, erātis, erant.

FUTURE PERFECT.

captus ero, eris, erit; | captī erimus, eritis, erunt.

### Subjunctive.

	D0 C1. C11 . D.
SINGULAR.	PRESENT. PLURAL.
capiar, -iāris, -iātur;	capiāmur, -iāminī, -iantur.
1	MPERFECT
caperer, -erēris, -erētur;	caperēmur, -erēminī, -erentur.
	Perfect.
captus sim, sīs, sit;	captī sīmus, sītis, sint.
P	LUPERFECT.
captus essem, essēs, esset;	captī essēmus, essētis, essent
Im	PERATIVE.
Pres. capere;	capiminī.
Fut. capitor, capitor;	capiuntor.
Infinitive.	PARTICIPLE.
Pres. capī.	

# VERBAL INFLECTIONS.

Perf. captus.

Fut. capiendus.

Perf. captus esse.

Fut. captum îrī.

220. The Principal Parts are formed in the four conjugations with the following endings, including the characteristic vowels,  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{e}$ , e,  $\bar{i}$ :

Conj. I.		,	,	,	<b>ātum</b> , amātum,	to love.
Conj. II. In	a few verbs:			,	<b>ētum,</b> dēlētum,	to destroy.
In .	most verbs:			,	itum, monitum,	to advise.
Conj. III. In	consonant stems		ere,		tum, carptum,	to pluck.
In	vowel stems:				tum, acūtum,	to sharpen.
CONJ. IV.			,		ītum, audītum,	to kear.

221. Compounds of verbs with dissyllabic Supines generally change the stem-vowel in forming the principal parts:

I. When the Present of the compound has i for e of the simple verb:

1. The Perfect and Supine generally resume the e:1

regő, regere, réxi, réctum, to rule. di-rigó, dirigere, diréxi, diréctum, to direct.

2. But sometimes only the Supine resumes the e:1

teneo, teneo, tenui, tentum, to hold. de-tineo, detinire, detinui, detentum, to detain.

I!. When the Present of the compound has i for a of the simple verb:

 The Perfect generally resumes the vowel of the simple perfect, and the Supine takes e, 'sometimes a:

eapió, capere, cepī, eaptum, to take. ac-cipió, accipere, accepī, acceptum, to accept.

2. But sometimes the Perfect retains i and the Supine takes e:1

rapió, rapere, rapui, raptum, to seize. di-ripió, diripere, diripui, direptum, to tear asunder.

Note.—For Resuptication in compounds, see 255, 1., 4; other peculiarities of compounds will be noticed under the separate conjugations.

222. All the forms of any regular verb arrange themselves in three distinct groups or systems:

I. The Present System, with the Present Infinitive as its basis, comprises—

- 1. The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative—Active and Passive.
- 2. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive-Active and Passive.
- 3. The Imperative-Active and Passive.
- 4. The Present Infinitive-Active and Passive.
- 5. The Present Active Participle.
- 6. The Gerund and the Gerundive.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the *Present Stem*, found in the **Present** Infinitive Active by dropping the ending **re**: amāre, present stem AMĀ; monēre, MONĒ; regere, RECE; audire, AUDI.

II. The Perfect System, with the Perfect Indicative Active as its basis, comprises in the Active Voice—

- 1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.
- 2. The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.
- 3. The Perfect Infinitive.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the *Perfect Stem*, found in the Perfect Indicative Active, by dropping **1**: amāvī, perfect stem Amāv; monuī, monu.

III. The Supine System, with the Supine as its basis, comprises-

<sup>1</sup> The favorite vowel before x, or two or more consonants; see 24, 1.

- The Supines in um and ū, the former of which with īrī forms the Future Infinitive Passive.
- 2. The Future Active and Perfect Passive Participles, the former of which with esse forms the Future Active Infinitive, and the latter of which with the proper parts of the auxiliary sum forms in the Passive those tenses which in the Active belong to the Perfect System.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the Supine Stem, found in the Supine by dropping um: amātum, supine stem AMĀT; monitum, MONIT.

# SYNOPSIS OF CONJUGATION

## FIRST CONJUGATION.

223. ACT	TIVE VO	ICE.—Am	ŏ, $I$ love.		
		1. Prin	NCIPAL PAR	TS.	
	amŏ,	amāre,	amāvī,	amātum.	
	2.	Present S	System; St	EM, amā.	
indicative. Pres. amő Imp. amābam Fut. amābŏ		mem märem	imper. amā amātŏ	infinitive. amäre	participle, amāns
		Gerund,	amandī, dō	, etc.	
	3.	Perfect S	ystem; Ste	м, amāv.	
<i>Perf.</i> amāvī <i>Plup.</i> amāvers F. P. amāverd	ım an	nāverim nāvissem		amāvisse	

4. Supine System; Stem, amāt.

I'ut. | | amātūrus esse | amātūrus | Supine, amātum, amātū.

224. PASSIVE 'VOICE.—Amor, I am loved.

Principal Parts.

amor. amārī. amātus sum.

2. Present System; Stem, amā.

Pres. amor Imp. amābar	amer amārer	amāre	amārī
Fut. amābor		amātor	
	Gerur	dive, amandu	S.

3. Supine System: Stem. amāt. INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE. IMPER. INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. Perf. amātus sum amātus sim amātus esse amātus Plup, amātus eram amātus essem F. P. amātus erő Fut. amātum īrī SECOND CONJUGATION 225. ACTIVE VOICE.—Moneo, I advise. 1. PRINCIPAL PARTS. moneŏ, monēre. monui. monitum. Present System; Stem, monē. Pres. moneŏ moneam monē monēre monens Imp. monēbam monērem Fut. monēbo monētŏ Gerund, monendī, dō, etc. 3. Perfect System: Stem. monu. Perf. monui monuerim monuisse Plup, monueram monuissem F. P. monnero 4. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, monit. Fut. | monitūrus esse | monitūrus Surine, monitum, monitu. 226. PASSIVE VOICE.—Moneor, I am advised. 1. Principal Parts. monitus sum. moneor, monērī. 2. Present System; Stem, mone. Pres. moneor monear monêre moněri Imp. monebar monêrer Fut. monebor monetor Gerundive, monendus, 3. SCPINE SYSTEM; STEM, monit. Perf. monitus sum monitus sim monitus esse | monitus Plup, monitus eram monitus essem F. P. monitus erő

monitum īrī

Fut.

# THIRD CONJUGATION.

1. Principal Parts.

2. Present System; Stem, regc.

Gerund, regendī, dō, etc.

3. Perfect System; Stem, rex.

4. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, rect.

Supinc, rēctum, rēctū.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

rēxī,

IMPERATIVE.

rege

regitŏ

rēctum.

INFINITIVE.

regere

rēxisse

| rēctūrus esse | rēctūrus

PARTICIPLE.

regēns

<b>227.</b> ACTIV	E VOICE	—Regŏ, <i>I</i>	rule.
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regere,

SUBJUNCTIVE.

regerem

rēxerim

228. PASSIVE VOICE.—Regor, I am ruled.

rēxissem

regam

regŏ,

INDICATIVE.

Pres. regŏ

Fut, regam

Perf. rēxī

Fut.

Plup, réxeram F. P. réxerŏ

Imp. regēbam

regor;	regī,	rēctus sum.
	2. Present Sys	TEM; STEM, rege.
<i>Pres</i> , regor <i>Imp</i> , regēbar <i>Fut</i> , regar	regar regerer	regere regī regitor
	Gerundive	regendus.
	3. Supine Syst	ем; Stem, rēct.
Perf. rēctus sum Pluρ. rēctus eram F. P. rēctus erŏ Fut,	rēctus sim rēctus essem	rēctus esse rēctus

# FOURTH CONJUGATION.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS,

229.	ACTIVE	VOICE Audiŏ,	I	hear.

audiŏ,	audīre,	audīvī,	audītu	m.
	2. Present Sys	STEM; STEM,	$aud\bar{\imath}.$	
Indicative. Pres. audiŏ mp. audiēbam vut. audiam	subjunctive. audiam audīrem	audī audītŏ	infinitive. audīre	participle, audiēns
	Gerund, aud	liendī, dō, e	te.	
	3. Perfect Syst	гем; Ѕтем,	audīv.	
Perf. audīvī Plup, audīveram P. P. audīverŏ	audīverim audīvissem		audīvisse	
	4. SUPINE SYST	ем; Ѕгем,	audīt.	
ut.	1		audītūrus esse	audītūrus
	Supine, aud	lītum, audīti	ū.	
230. PASSIVE	VOICE.—Audi	or, I am he	eard.	
	1. Princi	PAL PARTS		
audior,	audīr	ĩ,	audītus sum.	
	2. Present Sys	STEM; STEM,	$aud\bar{\imath}$ .	
Pres. audior Imp. audiēbar Vut. audiar	audiar audirer     Gerundive	audīre audītor audītor, audiendus	audīrī	
	3. Supine Syste	м; Ѕтем, ат	ulīt.	
Perf. audītus sum Plup, audītus eram F. P. audītus erŏ Fut.	audītus sim audītus essem		audītus esse	andītus

# DEPONENT VERBS.

- 231. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the Passive Voice with the signification of the Active. But—
- 1. They have also in the Active, the future infinitive, the participles, gerund, and supine.
- 2. The gerundive generally has the passive signification; sometimes also the perfect participle: hortandus, to be exhorted; expertus, tried.
- 3. The Future Infinitive of the Passive form is rare, as the Active form is generally used.

Note.—The synopsis of a single example will sufficiently illustrate the peculiarities of Deponent Verbs.

232. Hortor, I exhort.

#### 1. Principal Parts.

hortor, hortārī, hortātus sum.

### 2. Present System; Stem, hortā.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	IMPER.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
Pres. hortor 1	horter	hortare	hortārī	hortāns
Imp. hortābar	hortårer	1		
Fût. hortābor		hortator		ı
~	7 3 . 3-	~ 11		

Gerund, hortandī. Gerundive, hortandus.

# 3. Supine System; Stem, hortat.

Perf. hortātus sum	hortātus sim	hortātus esse	hortātus
Plup, hortātus eram	hortātus essem		
$F$ . $\hat{P}$ . hortātus erŏ			
Fat.		hortātūrus esse	hortātūrus

Supine, hortātum, hortātū.

NOTE.—For the Principal Parts of Deponent Verbs in the other conjugations, see 268, 283, and 288. From these Principal Parts the pupil, by the aid of the paradigms already learned, will be able to inflect any Deponent Verb.

# PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

233. The Active Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Future Active Participle with *sum*, denotes an intended or future action:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The tenses are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers: hortor, hortāris, hortātur, hortāmur, hortāminī, hortantur. All the forms in this synopsis have the active meaning. I exhort, I was exhorting, etc., except the Gerundire, which has the passive force, deverring to be exhorted, to be exhorted. The Gerundire, as it is passive in meaning, cannot be used in intransitive Deponent Verbs, except in an impersonal sense; see 301. 1.

# Amātūrus sum, I am about to love.

INDICATIVE,	SUBJUNCTIVE.	INFINITIVE.
Pres. amātūrus sum 1	amātūrus sim	amātūrus esse
Imp. amātūrus eram Fut. amātūrus erŏ	amātūrus essem	
Perf. amātūrus fuī Plup. amātūrus fueram	amātūrus fuerim amātūrus fuissem	amātūrus fuisse
F. P. amātūrus fnerč 1	amararas rameem	

234. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Gerundive with *sum*, denotes *necessity* or *duty*.

Amandus sum, I must be loved.2

Pres. amandus sum	amandus sim	amandus esse
Imp. amandus eram	amandus essem	
Fut. amandus erŏ		
Perf. amandus fuī	amandus fuerim	amandus fuisse
Plup, amandus fueram	amandus fuissem	
F. P. amandus fuerŏ		

Note.—The Periphrastic Conjugation, in the widest sense of the term, includes all forms compounded of participles with sinn; but as the Pres. Part, with sinn is equivalent to the Pres. Ind.  $(am\delta ins\ est = amat)$ , and is accordingly seldom used, and as the Perf. Part, with sinn is, in the strictest sense, an integral part of the regular conjugation, the term Periphrastic is generally limited to the two conjugations above given.

# PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION.

235. Perfects in **āvī**, **ēvī**, **īvī**, and the tenses derived from them, sometimes drop **v** and suffer contraction before **s** and **r**, and sometimes before **t**. Thus—

Ā with the following vowel becomes ā: amārīstī (amaīstī), amāstī; amāveram (amaeram), amāram; amāvisse (amaisse), amāsse; amāvil (amait), amāt.

**E** with the following vowel becomes **ē**: nēvī (to spin), nēvīstī (neīsti), nēstī; nēvērunt (neērunt), nērunt.

I.i and I.i become I: audivisti (auditsti), audisti; audivissem (auditsem), audissem; audivit (audit), audit.

Perfects in ivi sometimes drop v in any of their forms, but generally
without contraction, except before s: audivi, audii, audiit, audieram; audivisti, audiisti or audisti.

<sup>1</sup> The periphrastic forms are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers: cmātūrus sum, es, est. The Fit. Perf. is exceedingly rare.

<sup>2</sup> Or, I deserve (ought) to be loved.

- Perfects in ovi.—The perfects of noseo, to know, and moveo, to move, sometimes drop v and suffer contraction before v and s: novisti, nosti.
- 3. Pertects in stand xī sometimes drop īs, is, or sīs: scrīpsīstī, scrīpsīī; dīxisse, dīxe; accissīstis, accīstis.
- 236. The ending ere for erunt in the Perfect is common in Livy and the poets, but rare in Cicero and Caesar.

Note.—The form in ere does not drop v. In poetry erunt occurs.

- 237. Re for ris in the ending of the second Person of the Passive is rare in the Present Indicative, but common in the other tenses.
- 238. Dīc, dūc, fac, and for, for dīce, dūce, face, and fere, are the . Imperatives of dīcŏ, dūcŏ, faciŏ, and ferŏ, to say, lead, make, and bear.

Note 1.—Dice, duce, and face occur in poetry.

- Note 2.—Compounds follow the simple verbs, except those of  $fact\tilde{b}$ , which change a into  $i: c\bar{b}nfice$ .
- 239. Undus and undī for endus and endī occur as the endings of the Gerundive and Gerund of Conj. III. and IV., especially after i: faciundus, from faciō, to make; dieundus, from dieō, to say.
- 240. Ancient and Rare Forms.—Various other forms, belonging in the main to the earlier Latin, occur in the poets, even of the classical period, and occasionally also in prose, to impart to the style an air of antiquity or solemnity. Thus forms in—
- 1. ībam for ičbam, in the Imperfect Ind. of Conj. IV.: scībam for scičban. See Imperfect of cŏ, to go, 295.
- 2. ībo, ībor, for iam, iar, in the Future of Conj. IV.: servībŏ for serviam; opperībor for opperiar. See Future of cŏ, 295.
- 3. Im for am or em, in the Pres. Subj.: cdim, cdīs, etc., for cdam, cdās, etc.; duim (from duō, for dō), for dem.—In sim, velim, nōlim, mālim (204 and 293), im is the common ending.
- 4. āssŏ, ēszŏ, and sŏ, in the Future Perfect, and āssim, ēssim, and sim, in the Perfect Subjunctive of Conj. I., II., III.: fazŏ (faesŏ) for fēcerŏ¹ (from faciŏ); faxim for fēcerim¹; ausim for ausus sim (for auscrim, from andō). Rare examples are: lenāssŏ for levāverŏ; prohibēssŏ for prohibuerŏ; jūsserŏ; capsŏ for cēperŏ; axŏ for ēgerŏ; occīsit for occūderit; taxis for tetigerŏs.
- 5. to and mino for tor, the former in both numbers, the latter in the singular, of the Future Imperative, Passive and Deponent: arbitrāto, arbitrāmino for arbitrātor; ūtunto for ūtuntor.
- ier for ī in the Present Passive Infinitive: amārier for amārī; vidērier for vidērī.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Remember that r in  $er\check{o}$  and erim was originally s; see 31, 1; 204, foot-note 2.

## ANALYSIS OF VERBAL ENDINGS.

241. The endings which are appended to the stems in the formation of the various parts of the finite verb contain three distinct elements:

1. The Tense-Sign: ba in amā-ba-m, regē-bā-s.

2. The Moon-Vowel: ā in mone-ā-s, reg-ā-s.

3. The Personal Ending: s in mone-ā-s, reg-ā-s.

## I. Tense-Signs.

242. The Present is without any tense-sign: amā-s. So also the Future in Conjugations III. and IV.

243. In the other tense-forms of all regular verbs, the tense-sign is found in the auxiliary with which these forms are all compounded:

Amā-bam,2 amāv-eram; amā-bō, amāv-erō; monē-bam, monu-cram.

## H. Mood-Signs.

244. The Indicative has no special sign to mark the Mood.

245. The Subjunctive has a long vowel—ā, ē, or ī<sup>4</sup>—before the Personal Endings:

Mone-ā-mus, mone-ā-tis, am-ē-mus, am-ē-tis, s-ī-mus, s-ī-tis.

Note. This vowel is shortened before final m and t, and generally in the Perfect before s, mus, and tis. moneam, amet, sit, fuer's, amaverimus, amaveritis,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This Future is in form a Present Subjunctive, though it has assumed in full the force of the Future Indicative; see foot-note 4 below.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Bam and eram are both auxiliary verbs in the Imperfect, the former from the stem bbm, the old form of fn in fn-i, and the latter from the stem es; the former added to the Present stem forms the Imperfect, the latter added to the Perfect stem forms the Pipperfect. Bā and erā are Future torms, the tormer from bbm, the latter from es; the former added to the Present stem forms the Future in Conjugations 1, and 11, the latter added to the Perfect stem forms the Future Perfect. In the Subjunctive the tense-forms, except the Present, are compounded with Subjunctive tense-forms from es; thus, erem in regressm is for essem; the old form of essem; virim in rix-virim is for essim = sim, and issem in rêm-isem is for essem; thus the Tresent and Imperfect Subjunctive of sum added to the Perfect stem form the Perfect and Phyperfect Subjunctive.

<sup>3</sup> This ê comes from a-7, of which the 7 alone is the true Mood Sign.

<sup>4</sup> The Latin Subjunctive contains the forms of two distinct Moods—the Subjunctive with the sign  $\tilde{u}$ , and the Optative with the sign  $\tilde{v}$ , sometimes contained in  $\tilde{v}$  for  $av_1$ . Thus: Subjunctive, mone- $\tilde{u}$ -mus,  $auv_1\tilde{v}$ - $av_1\tilde{v}$ 

246. The Imperative is distinguished by its Personal Endings; see 217, 3.

## III. PERSONAL ENDINGS.

247. The Personal Endings are formed from ancient pronominal stems, and have, accordingly, the force of pronouns in English. They are as follows:

	PERSON.	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.	MEANING.
Singu!ar.1	First	$\mathbf{m}$	$\mathbf{r}$	I
	Second	s	ris	thou, you
	Third	t	tur	he, she, it
$Plurel.^2$	First	mus	mur	we
	Second	tis	minī ³	you
	Third	$\mathbf{nt}$	ntur	they
		EXAMPLE	s.	
amāba-m	amāb	n-r	regŏ	rego-r
amābā-s	amābā-ris		regi-s	rege-ris
amāba-t	amābā-tur		regi-t	regi-tur
amābá-mus	amábā-mur		regi-mus	regi-mur
amābā-tis	amābā-minī		regi-tis	regi-minī
amāba-nt	amāl	a-ntur	regu-nt	regu-ntur

- 1. OMITTED.—In the Present,<sup>4</sup> Perfect, and Future Perfect Ind. of all the conjugations, and in the Future Ind. of Conjugations I. and II., the ending m does not appear. In these forms the First Person ends in ŏ.\* anŏ, amābŏ, amāverŏ; except in the Perfect, where it ends in ī.\* amāvī.
- 2. The endings of the Perfect Active are peculiar. They are the same as in  $fu\bar{\imath}$ :

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the Singular these Personal Endings contain each—(1) in the Active Voice one pronominal stem, m, 1; s, thou you; t, he; and (2) in the Passive two such stems, one denoting the Person, and the other the Passive Voice: thus, in the ending tur, t ( $t\tilde{\mathbf{u}}$ ) denotes the person, and r, the voice R of the first person stands for m-r.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In the Plural the Endings contain each—(1) in the Active two pronominal stems:  $mn \cdot s = m \pmod{n}$  and s. I and you, i. e., we;  $t \cdot s = t \pmod{n}$  for n for n thou, as seen in  $t \cdot \tilde{u}$ , thou) and  $s_n = s$  and s, thou and thou i. e., you; n t = n and t, he and he, i. e., they; and (2) in the Passive three such stems, the third denoting the Passive Voice: thus in after, n t (ntu) denotes the person and number, and r, the voice.

<sup>3</sup> Mini was not originally a Personal Ending, but the Plural of a Passive Participle, not otherwise used in Latin, but seen in the Greek (μετοι). Amāminī, originally amāminī estis, means you are loved, as amātī estis means you have been loved.

<sup>4</sup> Except in sum, I am, and inquam, I say.

<sup>5</sup> The origin of this final ŏ is uncertain. Curtius regards it as simply the thematic vowel, but Meyer recognizes in it a suffix combined with the thematic vowel; see Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 199, 200; Meyer, p. 349.

<sup>6</sup> Probably a part of the stem; but see Curtius, Verbum, H., p. 173; Papillon, pp. 194-196; also two papers by the author, on the Formation of the Tenses for Completed Action in the Latin Finite Verb; Transactions of the Am. Phil Assoc., 1874 and 1975.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
First Pers.	fu-ī 1	fu-i-mus
Second	fu-īs-tī	fu-is-tis
Third	fu-i-t	fu-ëru-nt or ëre

3. The Imperative Mood has the following Personal Endings:

	ACTI	VE.	PASSIVE.		
	SINGULAR.	PLUBAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
Pres. Second Pers.	2	te	re	minī	
Fut. Second	tő	tõte	tor		
Third	tő	ntő	tor	ntor	

248. Infinitives, Participles, Gerunds, and Supines are formed with the following endings:

		ACTIVE.	Passive.
Infinitive	Present	re (ere)	rî (erî), î
	Perfect	isse	us esse
	Future	ūrus esse	um īrī
Participle	Present	ns	
	Future	ūrus	
	Perject		us
	Gerundive		ndus
Gerund		$\mathbf{n}$ dī	
Supinc		um, ū	

#### FORMATION OF STEMS.

249. The three Special Stems are all formed from the Verb Stem.

#### I. Present Stem.

250. The Present Stem, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping re, is generally the same as the Verb Stem in the First and in the Fourth Conjugations, and sometimes in the Second. Thus, amā, dēlē, and audī are both Present Stems and Verb Stems.

<sup>2</sup> In the Present the ending is dropped in the Sing, Act., and the endings te and re are shortened from the and ris of the Indicative by dropping s and changing final i into e; see 24, 1, note. In the Future, to of the second person corresponds to to of the Perfect Ind.; to and nto of the third person to t and nt. Tor and ntor add r to to and nto. Tote doubles the pronominal stem.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The final vowels are generally explained as derived from  $\sigma j.i$ , which became, in Conj. I.,  $\alpha j a$ , shortened to  $\tilde{\sigma}$  in  $\alpha m \tilde{a}$ , and to  $\tilde{\sigma}$  in the other forms, as  $\alpha m \tilde{a} \cdot m u s$ ; in

- 251. The Present Stem, when not the same as the Verb Stem, is formed from it by one of the following methods:
  - 1. By adding a short vowel, called the Thematic vowel: 1

```
regő; Stem, reg; Present Stem, rege; to rule, cano; "can; to sing.
```

2. By adding a Thematic vowel preceded by n, sc, or t:

sinő ;	Stem, si;	Present Stem, sin	ne;	to permit.
spernő ;	" sper, sprē ;	" spe	erne;	to spurn.
temnő;	" tem;	" ter	mne ;	to despise.
veterāscō;	" veterā;	" vei	terasce;	to grow old.
crescő;	" erē;	" crē	ēsce;	to increase.
plectő;	" plec;	" ple	ecte;	to braid.

3. By adding a *Thematic vowel* preceded by **i** or **j**:

```
capiō; Stem, cap; Present Stem, cap-jc, capc; 2 to take, pellō; "pel; "pel-je, pelle; 2 to drive, currō; "cur; cur-je, curre; 2 to run.
```

4. By adding a *Thematic vowel* and inserting **n**—changed to **m** before a labial, **b** or **p**; see 33, 3:

```
frangō; Stem, frag; Present Stem, frange; to break, tundō; "fud; "funde; to pour. tumpō; "rup; "rumpe; to burst.
```

5. By adding a, e, or i:

juvā; videā;	Stem, juv;	Present Stem, juvā;	to assist.
videő:	" vid;	" vidē ;	to see.
haurið :	" haur for ha	aus; "hauri;	to draw.

6. By reduplicating the stem:

```
sistő; Stem, sta; Present Stem, sista, 3 siste; to place.
```

Note.—Sometimes two of these methods are united in the same stem:

```
gignő; Stem, gen; Present Stem, gigene, gigene; 5 to beget.
nanciscor; "nac; "nancisco; 6 to obtain.
```

Conj. II., ejo, shortened to eō in dēl-eō, and to ē in dēl-ē-mus; and in Cenj. IV., ijo, shortened to iō in aud-iō, to in in aud-iu-nt, and to ī in aud-ī-mus; see 335, foot-nete.

- <sup>1</sup> This *Thematic rowel*, originally a, is generally weakened to c or i: reg-e-re, reg-imus; but sometimes it appears to take the form of  $\delta$  or u: reg- $\delta$ , reg-u-nt. There is, however, some difference of opinion in regard to the origin of  $\delta$  in such cases; see  $\beta$ 47. I, foot-note 5
- <sup>2</sup> With variable Thematic vowel; see foot-note 1, above. J, pronounced y, assimilated to l and r in pelle and curre, as in the Greek  $\beta\acute{a}\lambda\lambda\omega$ , from  $\beta\acute{a}\lambda\jmath\omega$ . See Curtius, Verburn, I., p. 300.
  - <sup>3</sup> For stista for stasta. The e in siste takes the several forms of the Thematic vowel.
- <sup>4</sup> S changed to r between two vowels; see 31, 1. The vowel a of the stem is weakened to i before s, but to e before r; see 24, 1 and 2.
  - <sup>5</sup> Reduplication with Thematic vowel.
  - <sup>6</sup> N inserted and i-se-e added.

## H. Perfect Stems.

252. Vowel Stems form the Perfect Stem by adding v:

amŏ (a-ŏ)	, umāvī;	Stem	, amá ;	Perfect Sten	amāv;	to love.
děleő,	dēlēvī;	**	dēlē;	* * *	delev;	
audīō,	nudīvī;	6.6	audi;	4.4	audīv ;	to hear.

1. In verbs in uo, the Perfect Stem is the same as the Verb Stem:

```
acuo, acui; Stem, acu; Perfect Stem, acu; to skarpen.
```

253. Many Liquid Stems, and a few others, form the Perfect Stem by adding u:

```
alŏ,
           aluī;
                      Stem, al:
                                    Perfect Stem, alu:
                                                                      to nourish.
fremo.
           fremui:
                             frem:
                                                    fremu:
                                                                      to rage.
                        44
                                           44
teneo,
                             ten;
                                                    tenu;
                                                                      to hold.
           tenui:
                                           ..
doceo.
                            doc:
           docui :
                                                   doen:
                                                                      to teach.
```

254. Most Consonant Stems form the Perfect Stem by adding s:

```
regő, rexi; Stem, reg; Perfect Stem, réx = regs; to rule.
seribő, seripsi; "serib; serips = seribs; to write.
carpő, carpsi; "carp; "carps; to pluck.
```

- 255. A few Consonant Stems form the Perfect Stem without any suffix whatever. But of these—
  - I. Some reduplicate the stem: 1

```
cano, cecini; Stem, can; Perfect Stem, cecin; to sing.
```

- 1. The REDIPLICATION consists of the initial consonant (or consonants) of the stem with the following vowel, or with  $\epsilon$ —generally with the following vowel, if that vowel is e, i, o, or u, otherwise with e; see examples under 271, 1, and 272, 1.
- 2. The Stem-Vowel a is generally weakened to i, sometimes to e: cadó, cecidi (for cecadi), to fall.
- 3. In Verbs beginning with Sp or St, the reduplication retains both consonants, but the stein drops the  $s:sponde\tilde{b},spopond\tilde{\iota}$  (for  $spospond\tilde{\iota}$ ), to promise;  $st\tilde{o},std\tilde{\iota}$  (for  $stest\tilde{\iota}$ ), to stand.
- 4. In Compounds of  $d\tilde{o}$ , to give;  $st\tilde{o}$ , to stand;  $disc\tilde{o}$ , to learn;  $posc\tilde{o}$ , to demand; and sometimes in the compounds of  $curr\tilde{o}$ , to run; r-spand $\tilde{o}$ , r-spand $\tilde{o}$ , r-spand $\tilde{o}$ , r-spand $\tilde{o}$ , to answer; circum- $d\tilde{o}$ , circum- $d\tilde{o}$ , circum- $st\tilde{o}$ , circum
  - II. Some lengthen the Stem-Vowel:2

```
Perfect Stem,
emő,
          ěmî:
                      Stem. em:
                                                      ēm:
                                                                to bun.
         čgi;
                             ag;
                                                                 to drive.
ngo,
                                                       ēu:
ab-igó,
         ab-cgi:
                             abig:
                                                                to drive away.
                                                       abēg:
```

Note.—The stem-vowels a and (in compounds) i generally become  $\hat{e}$ , as in  $ay\delta$  and  $ab\cdot i_J\hat{\phi}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See lists, 271, I, and 272, 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See lists, 271, 2, 272, 2

## III. Some retain the stem unchanged: 1

īcō,	īcī;	Stem, ic;	Perfect Stem,	īe;	to strike.
viső.	vīsī:	" vīs;		vīs;	to visit.

Note. -Of the few verbs belonging to this class, nearly all have the stem-syllable long.

#### III. SUPINE STEM.

## 256. The Surine Stem adds t to the Verb Stem:

amō,2	amātum ;	Stem,	amā;	Supine Stem,	amāt;	to love.
dīcō,	dictum;	"	die;	- "	diet;	to say.
mone5,	monitum,	6.6	moni;3	"	monit;	to advise.
dēleő,	dēlētum;	"	dēlē;	"	dēlēt:	to destroy.
audiō,	auditum;		audī;	"	audīt;	to hear.
earpō,	earptum;	"	earp;	"	carpt;	to pluck.

# 1. Sterr in d and t, most stems in 1 and r, and a few others, change tinto 3

laedő,	laesum;	Stem,	laed;	Supine Stem,	laes;4	to hurt.
vertŏ,	versum;	"	vert;	- "	vers; 4	to turn.
7errő,	versum;	"	verr;	"	vers;	to brush.
alič,	falsum:	"	fall:	"	fals;	to deceive.

## CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS. 6

#### FIRST CONJUGATION.

# CLASS I.—Stem in ā: Perfect in vī or uī.

# 257. Principal Parts in -ō, are, avī, atum.

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

ivī donātum, to bestow.
orāvī honorātum, to honor,
āvī līberātum, to free.
ināvī nominātum, to name,
nāvī pūgnātum, to fight.
āvī spērātum, to hope.
r

Note 1.—Pôto, are, avi, atum, to drink, has also a supine, pôtum,

Note 2.— $C\bar{e}n\bar{o}tus$ , from  $c\bar{e}n\bar{o}$ , 'to dine,' and  $j\bar{u}r\bar{u}tus$ , from  $j\bar{u}r\bar{o}$ , 'to swear,' are active in meaning, having dined, etc.  $P\bar{e}tus$ , from  $p\bar{o}t\bar{o}$ , is also sometimes active in meaning-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See list, 272, 3. 
<sup>2</sup> For amaŏ. 
<sup>3</sup> See 207.

<sup>4</sup> Lass is for lasdt, plaus for plaudt, vis for vidt, vers for vertt, fals for fallt, vers for vertt; see 35, 3, 2), note.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> The Perfect Formation is selected as the special basis of this classification, because the irregularities of the other principal parts are less important and can be readily associated with this formation. In this classification the regular or usual formation is first given with a few examples, then complete lists (1) of all the simple verbs which deviate from this formation, and (2) of such compounds as deviate in any important particular from their simple verbs.

 $<sup>^6</sup>$  It is decined unnecessary longer to retain the double mark  $\simeq$  over final o in verbs. The pupil has now learned that this vowel may be short, though it is generally long in the Angustan poets.

# 258. Principal Parts in-o, are, ui, itum.

crepō	crepāre	crepuī	crepitum,2	to creak.
cubō	cubăre	cubuī	cubitum,3	to recline.
domô	domāre	domuí	domitum,	to tame.
ēnecō	ēnecāre	ēnecuī	čnectum,4	to kill.
fricō	fricāre	fricuī	y frictum,     fricatum, {	to ruh.
micō	micāre	mieuī	6	to glitter.
plicō	plicăre	( plicāvī ) plieuī	plicātum, ) plicitum, <sup>6</sup> (	to fold.
secō	secăre	secuī	sectum,	to cut.
sonõ	sonāre	sonuī	sonitum, <sup>1</sup>	to sound.
tonõ	tonāre	tonuī		to thunder.
vetō	vetāre	vetuī	vetitum,	to forbid.

# CLASS II.—PERFECT IN I.

# 259. Principal Parts in-5, are, ī, tum.

#### 1. WITH REDUPLICATION.8

dō stō	dare stāre	dedī stētī	datum, stătum,	to give. to stand.
	2. WIT	H LENGTHENED	STEM-VOWEL.8	
juvō	juvāre	jūvī	jūtum,	to assist.
lavõ	lavāre	lãvi	( lavātum, º ) lautum, ( lötum,	to wash.

Note 1.—In  $d\hat{c}$  the characteristic a is short by exception; ''a dabam, daba, darem, etc. Four compounds of de- $eireumd\bar{o}$ ,  $pessumd\bar{o}$ ,  $sitisd\bar{o}$ , and  $ren amd\bar{o}$ —are conjugated like the simple verb; the rest are of the Third Conjugation (271). The basis of several of these compounds is  $d\hat{c}$ , 'to place,' originally distinct from  $d\bar{o}$ , 'to give.'

NOTE 2.—Compounds of stō generally want the Supine. In the Perfect they have steti, if the first part is a dissyllable, otherwise stiti: adstō, adstāre, adstitī. Distō and exstō want Perfect and Supine.

- 1 Note deviations in the Supine.
- 2 Increpo, are, ui (avi), itum (atum); discrepo, are, ui (ari), ---.
- Compounds which Insert m, as accumbo, etc., are of Conj. 111.; see 273.
- 4 The simple neco is regular, and even in the compound the forms in avi and atum occur.
  - 5 Dimico, are, avi (ui), atum; incico, are, ui, atum.
  - 5 Duplico, multiplico, replico, and supplico, are regular: are, avi, atum.
- 7 Seco has participle secutarus; sono, sonatūrus; jurā, jurātūrus, in compounds also jūtūrus. Resone has Perfect resonārā. Most compounds of sono want the Supine.
  - 8 Sec 255, L and H.
  - 9 In poetry, laro is sometimes of Conj. III.: laro, larere, lari etc.
- <sup>10</sup> This short vowel is explained by the fact that  $d\bar{a}$  is a root-verb formed directly from the root da without the suffix from which the  $\bar{a}$  is derived in other verbs in this conjugation; see 250, foot-note.

#### 260. Deponent Verbs.

In this conjugation deponent verbs are entirely regular.

conor	conārī	conatus sum,	to endeavor.
hortor	hortārī	hortātus sum,	to exhort.
mīror	mīrārī	mīrātus sum,	to admire.

#### SECOND CONJUGATION.

# CLASS I.—STEM IN ē: PERFECT IN VI OR UI.

## 261. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, ēvī, ētum.

These endings belong to the following verbs:

dēleō	dēlēre	dēlēvī	dēlētum,	to destroy.
compleō	complēre	complēvī	complētum,1	to fill.
fleō	flēre	flēvī	flētum,	to weep.
neō	nēre	nēvī	${ m nar etum,^2}$	to spin.

## 262. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, uī, itum.

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

dēbeō	dēbēre	dēbuī	dēbitum,	to owe.
habeō	habēre	habuī	habitum,	to have.
moneō	monēre	monuī	monitum,	to advise.
noceō	nocēre	nocui	nocitum,	to hurt.
pāreō	pārēre	pāruī	pāritum,	to obey.
placeō	placēre	placuī	placitum,	to please.
taccō	tacēre	tacuï	tacitum,	to be silent.

Note 1.—Many verbs with the Perfect in **u** want the Supine. The following are the most important:

candeo, to shine.	madeō,	to be wet.	sorbeō,	to swallow.
egeo, to want.	niteō,	to shine.	splendeő	to shine.
emineo, to stand forth.	oleō, ´	to smell.		to study.
floreo, to bloom.	palleō,	to be pale.	stupeō,	to be amazed.
frondeo, to bear leaves.	pateō,	to be open.	timeō,	to fear.
horreo, to shudder.	rubcē,	to be red.	torpeō,	to be torpid.
lateo, to be hil.	sileō,	to be silent.	vireo,	to be green.

Note 2.—Some verbs, derived mostly from adjectives, want both Pericci and Supine. The following are the most important:

	to be white.	hebeō,	to be blunt.		to be sad.
-calveō,	to be bald.		to be moist.		to be powerful.
eaneo,	to be gray.	immineō,	to threaten.	remideo,	to shine.
flaver.	to be wellow.	lacteō,	to saci.	squaleo,	to be filthy.

<sup>1</sup> Po other compounds of the obsolete plea: explea, implea, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> To these may be added aboleo, abolere, abolevi, abolitum, 'to destroy,' with Supine in itum. See also aboleseo, 277.

# CLASS H.—Stem in c. n. r. or s: Perfect in u...

263. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, uī, tum or sum.

These endings belong to the following verbs:

cênseô doceô	cënsëre docëre	cēnsuī docuī	cēnsum,³ dōctum,	to think, to teach,
misceô	miscēre	misenī	{ mistum, } } mixtum, {	to mix.
teneő	tenēre	tenuï*	tentum,4	to hold.
torreō	torrēre	torruī	tostum,	to roast.

# CLASS III.—Stem in a Consonant: Perfect in si or i.

# 264. Principal Parts in—eō, ēre, sī, tum.

augeő	augēre	auxī	auctum,	to increase.
indulgeō	indulgēre	indulsī	indultum,	to indulge.
torqueō	torquere	torsĩ	tortum,	to twist.

#### 265. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, sī, sum.2

algeô	algēre	alsī		to be cold.
ārdeō	ārdēre	ārsī	ārsum,	to burn.
cônîveō	conivere	∫ cönīvī <b>}</b> } cōnīxī ∫		to wink at,
frīgeō	frīgēre	frīxī (rare)		to be cold.
fulgeō	fulgëre	fulsī	5	to shine.
haereő	haerēre	liaesī	haesum,6	to stick,
jubeō	jubëre	jūssī	jūssum,	to order.
lűceő	lūcēre	Ϊūxī	· · · · · ·	to shine.
lûgeō	lügére	lūxī		to mourn,
maneō	manēre	mānsī	mānsum,	to remain.
mulgeõ	mulgēre	$\mathrm{muls}\bar{\imath}$	mulsum,	to milk.
mulceō	muleëre	mulsī	mulsum,7	to snothe.
rīdeō	rīdēre	rīsī	rīsum,	to laugh.
snādeō	suädēre	suāsī	snāsum,	to advise.
tergeo	tergēre	tersî	tersum,	to wipe.
turge5	turgēre	tursî $(rare)$		to swell.
urgeo (urgueō)	urgêre	ursī		to press.

Note.— $Cic\bar{v}$ ,  $cir\bar{v}$ ,  $cir\bar{v}$ , citum, to arouse, has a kindred form,  $ci\bar{v}$ ,  $cir\bar{v}$ ,  $cir\bar{v}$ ,  $cir\bar{v}$ , cirm, from which it seems to have obtained its Perfect. In compounds the forms of the Fourth Conj prevail, especially in the sense of to call, call forth.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For convenience of reference, a General List of all verbs involving irregularities will be found on page 3-3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Present Stem adds 4; see 251, 5. For phonetic changes, see 33-36.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Participle census and censitus.—Percenseo wants Supine: recenseo has recensum and recensitum.

<sup>4</sup> In most compounds the Supine is rare.

<sup>5</sup> Poetic, fulgo, fulgere, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> The stem of haereñ is haes. The Present adds ē and changes s to r between two vowels. In haesī and haesam, s standing for ss or it is not changed.

<sup>7</sup> In compounds sometimes mulctum.

# 266. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, ī, tum.

#### WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

eaveõ	cavēre	ęāvī	cautum,	to beware.
faveõ	favēre	fāvī	fautum,	to javor.
foveō	fovēre	fōvī	fōtum,	to cherish.
moveö	movēre	mõvī	mōtum,	to more.
paveō	pavēre	pāvī		to fear.
voveō	vovēre	νōvī	võtum,	to vow.

# 267. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, ī, sum.

#### 1. WITH REDUPLICATION.1

pendeō per spondeō spo	rdëre momordî ndëre pependî ondëre spopondî dëre totondî	morsum, pēnsum, spōnsum, tōnsum,	to bitc. to hang. to promise. to shear.
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#### 2. WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

$sede\bar{o}$	$sed\bar{e}re$	sēdī	sēssum,2	to sit.
videō	vidēre	vīdī	vīsum,	to see.

#### 3. WITH UNCHANGED STEM.

### 268, Deponent Verbs.

#### 1. Regular.

liceor mereor polliceor	licērī merērī pollicērī	licitus sum, meritus sum, pollicitus sum,	to bid. to descrre, to promise,
tueor	tuêrī	( tuitus sum, ) / tūtus sum, (	to protect.
vereor	verērī	veritus sum,	to fear.
		2. Irregular.	

fatērī	fassus sum, <sup>5</sup>	to confess.
medērī	<del></del>	to cure.
miserērī	miseritus sum, misertus sum, misertus sum,	to pity.
rērī	ratus sum,	to think.
	medērī miserērī	medērī   miseritus sum, } miserērī   misertus sum, }

For reduplication in compounds, see 255, I., 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> So circumsedeō and supersedeō. Other compounds thus: assideō, ēre, assēdī, assēssum; but dissideō, praesideō, and resideō, want Supine.

<sup>3</sup> Observe that the supine stem is wanting in most of these verbs.

<sup>4</sup> Participle, pransus, in an active sense, having dined.

<sup>6</sup> Confiteor, cri, confessus: so profiteor.

#### 3. Semi-Deponent-Deponent in the Perfect.

audeõ	andêre	ausus sum,	to dare.
gaudeō	gaudēre	gāvīsus sum,	to rejoice.
soleō	solēre	solitus sum,	to be accustomed.

#### THIRD CONJUGATION.

Note.—This conjugation contains the primitive verbs of the language; see 335.

# CLASS I.—Stem in a Consonant: Perfect in sī or ī. 269, Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, sī, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs whose stems end in a consonant. The following are examples:

carpõ	carpere	carpsī	carptum,2	to pluck.
cingõ	cingere	$\operatorname{cinx}_{\overline{\imath}}(gsi)$	cinctum,	to gird.
dīcō	dicere	dixī	dictum,	to say.
dūcō	dücere	duxī	ductum,	to lead.
exstinguō	exstinguere	exstinxĩ	exstinetum,3	to extinguish.
gerō	gerere	gessī	gestum,	to earry.
nūbō	nübere	nūpsī	nüptum,	to marry.
regō	regere	rēxī	rēctum,2	to rulc.
sūmō	sümere	sūmpsī	sümptum,	to take.
trahō	trahere	traxî	tractum,	to draw.
ūrō	ŭrere	ñssī	űstum,	to burn.
vehō	vehere	vēxī	vēctur,	to carry.
vīvõ	vīvere	vîxî	victum,	to live.

## 270. Principal Parts in-o (or io), ere, sī, sum.

A		,	, , ,	
eēdō	cēdere	eessī	cēssum,	to yield.
elandō	claudere	clausī	clausum,4	to close.
dīvidō	dîvidere	dīvīsī	dīvīsum,	to divide.
ēvādō	ēvādere	ēvāsī	ēvāsum,5	to evade.
fīgō	fīgere	fīxī	fīxum,	to j'asten.
flectő	flectere	flēxī	flēxum,	to bend.
frendo	frendere		) frēsum, ) / frēssum, \	to gnas <b>h.</b>
laedō	laedere	laesī	laesum,4	to hurt.
lūdō	lüdere	lűsi	lūsum,	to play.
mittō	mittere	misī	missum,	to send.
mergō	mergere	mersi	mersum,	to dip.
nectō	nectere	∫ nēxī ) } nēxnī <sup>6</sup> ∫	nēxum,	to bind.
pectō	pectere	` pēxī	pēxum,	$to\ comb.$

<sup>1</sup> For Phonetic Changes, see 30-36.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The stem-vowel is often changed in compounds:  $earp\bar{o}$ ,  $d\bar{e}$ -cerp $\bar{o}$ ;  $reg\bar{o}$ ,  $d\bar{e}$ -rig $\bar{o}$ ; for this change, see 344, 4; also 221.

<sup>3</sup> So other compounds of stinguō (rare): distinguō, etc.

Compounds of claudô have û for au, con-cludô; those of lacdô, î for ae, il-lidô; those of plaudô generally ô for au, ex-plêdô; those of quatiô, cu for qua, con-cutiô.

<sup>5</sup> So other compounds of rido.

<sup>6</sup> Compounds take this form in the Perfect

plecto	plectere	plēxī	. plēxum,	to plait.
plaudō	plaudere	plausī	plausum,1	to appland.
premō	premere	pressī <sup>2</sup>	pressum,	to press.
quatiō	quatere	quassī 2	quassum,1	to shake.
spargō	spargere	sparsī ·	sparsum,	to seatter.
rādō	rādere	rāsī	rāsum,	to shave.
rōdō	rödere	rōsī	rösum,	to gnaw.
tergō	tergere	tersī	tersum,3	to wipe off.
trūdō	trūdere	trūsī	trūsum,	to thrust.
				~

## 271. Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, ī, tum.

## 1. WITH REDUPLICATION.

abdō	abdere	abdidī	abditum.4	to hide.
canō	canere	cecinī	cantum, <sup>5</sup>	to sing.
crēdó	erēdere	crēdidī	crēditum,6	to believe.
$\operatorname{discar{o}}$	discere	didicī		to learn.
pangō	pangere	pepigī	pāctum,	to bargain.
$pang\bar{o}$	pangere	∫ panxī } pēgī	panetum, <sup>7</sup> ) pāetum, (	to fix in.
parió	parere	peperī	partum,8	to bring forth.
sistõ	sistere	stitī	statum,9	to place.
tangō	tangere	tetigī	tāctum, 10	to touch.
$\mathbf{t}$ end $\tilde{\mathbf{o}}$	tendere	tetendî	{ tentum, 10 } tensum, {	. to stretch.
tollö	tollere	sustulī	sublātum, 11	to raise.
vendõ	vēndere	vēndidī	vēnditum,6	to sell.
$pung\bar{o}$	pungere	pupugī	punctum, 12	to prick.
	2. WI	TH LENGTHENED	STEM-VOWEL.	
agō	agere	ēgī	āetum, 13	to drive.
anni:	0000000	a 7 - 7	11	, , ,

$ag\bar{o}$	agere	ēgī	āetum, 13	to drive.
capiō	capere	cēpī	captum, 14	to take.
emo	emere	ēmī	ĕmptum,15	to buy.

- 1 See page 127, foot-note 4.
- <sup>2</sup> See 34, 1, note; 35, 3, 2).
- 3 Also tergeo, tergère, etc.; compounds take this form; see 265.
- <sup>4</sup> So all compounds of do except those of Conjugation I.; see 259, note 1.
- 6 Cencinō, ere, concinui, ——; so occinō and praecinō; other compounds want Perfect and Supine.
  - <sup>6</sup> Explained as a compound of  $d\bar{o}$ ; see  $abd\bar{o}$ .
- <sup>7</sup> Compingō, ere, compēgō, compactum; so also impingō. Dēpangō wants Perfect; repangō, Perfect and Supine.
  - 6 Participle, pariturus: compounds are of Conjugation IV.
  - 9 Compounds thus: consisto, ere, constitu, constitum; but circumsteti also occurs.
  - 10 Compounds drop the reduplication.
  - 11 Attollo and extollo want Perfect and Supine.
  - 12 Compounds thus: compungō, ere, compunxī, compunctum.
- 13 So circumagō and peragō; satagō wants Perfect and Supine. Other compounds change a into i in the Present: abigō, ere, abēgō, abāctum; but coigō becomes cɨgō, ere, coɨgō, coāctum, and deigō, dɨgō, ere, dēgō, without Supine. Prēdigō wants Supine, and ambigō, Perfect and Supine.
  - 14 So antecapio; other compounds thus: accipio, ere, accept, acceptum.
  - 16 So coemo; other compounds thus: adimo, ere, ademi, ademptum.

faciō	facere	fēcī	factum,1	to make.
fugiō	fugere	fūgī	fugitum,	to flee.
jació	jacere	jēcī	jactum,2	to throw.
frangō	frangere	frēgī	frāctum,3	to break.
legő	legere	lēgī	lēctum,⁴	to read.
linguõ	linguere	līqui	6	to leave.
scabō	scabere	scābī		to scratch.
vincō	vincere	vîcī	victum,	to conquer.
rumpõ	rumpere	rūbī	ruptum,	to burst.

## 272, Principal Parts in-ō (or iō), ere, ī, sum.6

## 1. WITH REDUPLICATION.

cadō	cadere	cecidi	eāsum,	to fall.
caedō	caedere	cecīdī	caesum,8	to cut.
eurrō	eurrere	cucuri	eursum,9	to run.
fallō	fallere	fefellī	falsum, <sup>10</sup>	to deceive.
parcó	parcere	pepercī (parsī)	parsum, <sup>11</sup>	to spare.
pellō	pellere	pepuli	pulsum, <sup>12</sup>	to drive.
pendō	pendere	pependî	pēnsum, <sup>12</sup>	to weigh.
poseō	poscere	poposci	13	to deman <b>d.</b>
tundō	tundere	tutudī	∫ tūnsum,¹²  } } tūsum,	to beat.

#### 2. WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

edő	edere	ēdī	_	ēsum,	to eat.
fodiō	fodere	födī		fossum,	to dig.
fundō	fundere	$\mathbf{f}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{i}$		fūsum,	to pour.

#### 3. WITH UNCHANGED STEM.

aecendō	accendere	accendî	accēnsum, <sup>14</sup>	to kindle.
cūdō	cūdere	eŭdī	eūsum,	to forge.
dēfendō	dēfendere	défendî	dēfēnsum,14	to defend.

- 1 Passive irregular: fīō, fierī, factus sum; see 294. So satisfaciō and compounds of faciō with verbs; but compounds with prepositions thus: cōnficiō, cōnficere, cōnfici, cōnfectum; with regular Passive, cōnficiōr, cōnfict, cōnfictus sum.
- <sup>2</sup> Superjació has jactum or jectum in Supine: compounds with monosyllabic prepositions thus; abició, abicere, al j'e', abjectum; see page 20, foot-note 1.
  - 3 Compounds thus : cenfringe, ere, cenfregi, cenfractum.
- 4 So compounds, except (1) colligo, ere, colligi, collectum; so d'iligo, iliqo, s'iliqo, s'eliqo, ere, d'ilizo, d'ilèctum; so intellego, n'eglego, though n'egl'go occurs in the Perfect.
  - 5 Compounds with Supine : relinguo, ere, reliqui, relicium.
  - 6 For Phonetic Changes, see 30-36.
  - 7 Incido, ere, incido, inc isum; so occido and recido; other compounds want Supine.
  - 8 Compounds thus: concido, ere, concidi, concisum.
- 9 Exeurro and praecurro generally retain the reduplication: exeucurro, praecucurro; other compounds generally drop it.
  - 10 Refello, ere, refelli, without Supine.
- n Comparço ere, comparso, comparson, also with e for a: compercó, erc, etc. Imparço and reparço want Perfect and Supine.
  - 12 Compounds drop reduplication, 255, L. 4.
  - 13 Compounds retain reduplication, 255, L. 4.
  - 14 So other compounds of the obsolete cando and fendo.

findō ĭeō	findere Icere	fidī (findī) īcī	fissum, īctum,	to part. to strike.
mandō	mandere	mandï	mānsum,	to chew.
pandő	pandere	pandī	∫ passum, } } pānsum, }	to open.
pīnsó (p <b>ī</b> sō)	pīnsere	{ pīnsī } pīnsuī	( pīnsitum, ) - pīstum, ) pīnsum,	to pound.
prehendō	prehendere,	prehendī	prehēnsum,1	to grasp.
scandō	scandere	scandī	scānsum,	to climb.
scindō	scindere	scidī	scissum,	to rend.
solvõ	solvere	solvī	solūtum,²	to loose.
vellõ	vellere	vellī (vulsī)	vulsum,	to pluck.
verrō	verrere	verrī	versum,	to brush.
vertō	vertere	vertī	versuni,3	to turn.
vīsō	visere	vīsī	vīsum,	to visit.
volvō	volvere	volvī	volūtum,	to roll.

Note 1.—Some verbs with the Perfect in sī or ī want the Supine:

rngō, ere, anxī,	to squeeze.	metuō, ere, ī,	to fear.
annuë, ere, î,	to assent.	pluë, ere, î, or plavî,	to rain.
batu5, ere, ĭ,	tilent.	psallō, ere, î,	to play the harp.
bibē, ere, î.	to drink.	sīdō, ere, ī.4	to sit down.
congruō, ere, i,	to agree.	ningô, ere, ninxì,	to snow.
ingruō, ere, ī,	to assail.	strīdō, ere, ī,	to creak.
lambô, cre, ī,	io liek.	sternuō, ere, ī,	to eneeze.
37 3 0	1 1 1 2		

Note 2.—Some verbs want both Perfect and Supine:

elangō,	$to\ c/ang.$	hīscō.	to gape.
claudē,	to be lame.	vādō,	to go.5
fatiscō,	to gape.	temnō,	to despise.6
glīscō,	to grow.	vergō,	to incline.

# CLASS II.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN ui.

# 273. Principal Parts in-ō (or iō), ere, uī, itum.

accumbő	accumbere	accubuī	accubitum,7	to recline.
$al\bar{o}$	alere	aluī	{ alitum, } - } altum, }	to nourish.
depsõ	depsere	depsui	depsitum, depsitum, depsitum,	to knead.
ēliciõ	ēlicere	ēlieuī	ēlieitum,8	to clicit.
fremō	fremere	fremuĩ	fremitum,	to raye.
gemō	gemere	gemuĭ	gemitum,	to groan.
gignő	gignere	genuī	genitum,	to beget.
molō	molere	moluĩ	molitum,	to grind.

Often written préndō, prendere, etc.

 $<sup>^2</sup>$  V is here changed to its corresponding vowel u: solutum for solvtum.

 $<sup>^3</sup>$  Compounds of  $d\bar{e},~prue,~re,$  are generally deponent in the Present, Imperfect, and Future.

<sup>\*</sup> Perfect and Supine generally supplied from  $sede\tilde{o}$ ; hence  $s\tilde{e}d\tilde{c}$ ,  $s\tilde{c}ssum$ . So in compounds.

<sup>5</sup> See evado, 270.

<sup>6</sup> But contemno, ere, contempsi, contemptum.

<sup>7</sup> So other compounds of cumbo, cubo; see cubo, 258.

b Other compounds of lacio thus: allicio, allicere, allexi, allectum,

pīnsō	pīnsere	∫ pīnsuī } pīnsī	( pīnsitum, ) pīstum, pīnsum,	to crush.
põnõ	pånere	posuī	positum,	to place,
strepõ	strepere	strepuī	strepitum,	to make a noise,
vomõ	vomere	vomuī	vomitum,	to vomit.

Note.—Compises, 'to restrain'; excello, 'to excel'; fure, 'to rage'; sterio, 'to sacre'; and t. e.no, 'to tremble,' have the Perfect in no, but want the Supine.

#### 274. Principal Parts in-ō (or iō), ere, nī, tum.

colō cōnsulō occulō	colere consulere occulere	eoluī consuluī occabaī	eultum, cõnsultum, occultum,	to cultivate. to consult. to hide,
rapió	rapere	rapuī	raptum,2	to smach.
serō	serere	seruī	sertum,	to connect.
texô	texere	texuī	textum,	to weave.

## 275. Principal Parts in-ō, ere, suī, sum.

mető	metere	messuī <sup>3</sup>	messum,	to reap.
nectō	nectere	( nexī ) / nexuī (	nexum,	to bind.

# CLASS III.—STEM IN A VOWEL: PERFECT IN VI OR I.

## 276. The following verbs have the Perfect in avi from a stem in a:

päseö 4	päscere	pāvī	pāstum,	to feed.
sternő	sternere	strāvi	strātum,	to strew.
veterāseō	veteräseere	veterāvī		to grow old.

# 277. The following verbs have the Perfect in evi from a stem in e:

abolēscō	abolēscere	abolêvî	abolitum,5	to disappear.
cernō	cernere	crēvī	crētum,	to decide.
crēsco	crēseere	crēvī	erētum,6	to grow.
quiescō	quiescere	quiēvī	quietum,	to rest.
spernő	spernere	sprēvī	sprētum,	to spurn.
suēsco	suescere	suēvī	suētum,	to become accustomed.

Note.—Sero, serere, sevi, satum,7 to sore,

#### 278. The following verbs have the Perfect in īvī from a stem in ī:

~				
arcēssō	arcēssere	areēssīvī	arcēssītum,	to call for.
capessō cupiō	capessere cupere	capessīvī eupīvī	capessitum, cupitum,	to lay hold <b>of.</b> to desire,
capio	cupere	Citylevi	cupicum,	to thatie.
facessō	facessere	{ facessīvī } } facessī {	facessītum,	to make.

Other compounds of cello want the Perfect and Supine, except percello, percellere, percello, percellom.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compounds thus: corripio, corripere, corripui, correptum.

<sup>3</sup> The Perfect in sui seems to be a double formation, si enlarged to sui.

<sup>4</sup> The stem of pasco is pa, pas; the Present Stem adds see; see 251, 2.

b So inoléscő; but adoléscő has Supine adultum; exoléscő, exoletum; obsoléscő, obsolétum.

<sup>6</sup> Incresco and succresco want the Supine.

<sup>7</sup> Compounds thus : consero, conserere, consivi, consitum,

incēssō	incēssere	(ineëssīvī ) ) ineëssī (		to attack.
lacessō	lacessere	lacessīvī	lacessītum,	to provoke.
linō	linere	līvī, lēvī	litum,	to smear.
nōseō	nöscere	nōvĩ	nōtum,1	to know.
pető	petere	petīvī	petītum,	to ask.
quaerō	quaerere	quaesīvī	quaesītum,2	to seek.
rudō	rudere	rudīvī	rudītum,	to bray.
sapiõ	sapere	sapīvī, sapuī		to tuste.
sinő	sinere	sīvī	situm,	to permit.
terō	terere	trīvī	trītum,	to rub.

## 279. Principal Parts in-ō, ere, ī, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs with u-stems. The following are examples:

acuō	acuere	acuī	acūtum,	to shar <b>p</b> en.
arguō	arguere	arguī	argūtum,	to convict.
imbuõ	imbuere	imbuī	imbūtum,	to imbuc.
minűő	minuere	minuī	minūtum,	to diminish.
ruō	ruere	ruī	rutum,	to full.
statuŏ	statuere	statuī	statūtum,	to place.
tribuō	tribuere	tribuĭ	tribūtum,	to impart.
Note,-	-Fluō and struō h	ave the Perfect in :	xī.	
fluō	fluere	flū xī ³	flūxum,	to flow.
struō	struere	strūxī³	strūctum,	to build. ~

#### INCEPTIVES.

# $\geq$ 280. Inceptives end in $\mathbf{sc\bar{o}}$ , and denote the beginning of an action.

Note.—When formed from verbs, they are called Verbal Inceptives, and when formed from nouns or adjectives, Denominative Inceptives.

# 281. Most Verbal Incertives want the Supine, but take the Perfect of their primitives:

acèscō	(aceō)	acescere	acuī	 to become sour.
ārēseō	$(\tilde{a}re\tilde{a})$	ārēscere	āruī	 to become dry.
ealēscō	(caleō)	ealéscere	ealuî	 to become warm.
flőréseő	(floreo)	flörëscere	flŏruī	 to begin to bloom.
tepēseo	(tepeô)	tepëseere	tepuī	 to become warm.
virēseō	(v <b>ir</b> eō)	virtseere	viruī	 to become green.

## Note.—The following take the Perfect and Supine of their primitives:

concupisco convalesco exardesco inveterasco obdormisco revivisco	(con, cupiō) (con, valeō) (ex, ārdeō) (invetcrō) (ob, dormiō) (re, vēvō) (sciō)	ere ere ere ere ere	concupīvī convaluī exārsī inveterāvī obdormīvī revivī	concupitum, convalitum, exarsum, inveteratum, obdormitum, revictum,	to desire. to grow strong. to burn, to grow old. to fall asleep, to revive.
scisco	(sciō)	ere	scîvî	scītum,	to enact.

¹ So īgnāscō; āgnāscō and cāgnāscō have itum in Supine, āgnitum; dāgnāscō and anternāscō want Supine.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compounds thus: acquiro, ere. acquisiri, acquisitum.

For flug-si, strug-si, formed not from u-stems, but from consonant-stems.

## 282. Most Denominative Inceptives want both Perfect and Supine:

	(dives),				to grow mild.
dulcoscō		to become sweet.			to grow soft.
grandescō	(grandis),	to grow large.	puerásco	(puer),	to become a boy.

#### Note. - The following have the Perfect in ui:

I no long have			
(criber)	ere	erēbruī,	to become frequent.
$(d\bar{u}rus)$	ere	dūrnī,	to become ward.
(in. netus)	ere	ınnötuï,	to becon el noren.
(macer)	ere	macrui,	to become lan.
(māturus)	cre	matarui,	to ripen.
(ob, mitus)	ere	obmātui,	to grow dumb.
(re, crūdus)	ere	recrādnī,	to bleed afrest.
(vilis)	ere	vilui,	to become worthless.
	(criber) (dūrus) (in, netus) (maer) (māturus) (ob, mūtus) (re, crūdus)	(cr'ber)         ere           (divus)         ere           (in, netus)         ere           (materns)         ere           (materns)         ere           (ob, matus)         ere           (re, criadus)         ere	(dūrus) ere dūruī, (in. netus) ere mnōtuī, (maeer) ere macruī, (māturus) ere mātūruī, (ob. mūtus) ere obmūtuī, (rē, erādus) ere reerāduī,

# 283. Deponent Verbs.

amplector	ī	amplēxus sum,	to embrace. to obtain,
apiscor comminiscor		aptus sum,¹	
	1 7	commentus sum, <sup>2</sup>	to devise.
expergiscor	ī 3	experrēctus sum,	to awake.
fatiscor	1 "	( 6	to gape.
fruor	ĩ	frūctus sum, )	to enjoy.
C		(fruitus sum, ∫	
fungor	1	functus sum,	to perform.
gradio <del>r</del>	1	grēssus sum,4	to walk.
īrāscor	Ĩ		to be angry.
lābor	ī	lāpsus sum,	to fall.
līquor	ī		to melt.
loquor	ī	locūtus sum,	to speak.
morior	ī (īrī, rarc)	mortuus sum, <sup>5</sup>	to die.
nanciscor	ĩ	nactus (nanctus) sum,	to obtain.
näscor	ĩ	nātus sum,5	to be born.
T4		( nīsus sum, )	4 4. 2
nitor	ī	nīxus sum, (	to strive.
obliviscor	ī	oblitus sum,	to forget.
paciscor	ī	pactus sum,	to buryain.
patior	ĩ	passus sum,	to suffer.
proficiscor	ĩ	profectus sum,	to set out.
queror °	ĩ	questus sum,	to complain.
teminiscor	ī		to remember.
ringor	ī	rictus sum,	to growl.
sequor	ī	secūtus sum,	to follow.
ulciscor	ī	ultus sum,	to avenge.
ñtor	ī	ūsus sum,	to use.
vēscor	ī	<u>'</u>	to cut.

Semi-Deponent—Deponent in the Perfect.

fido fidere fisus sum, to trust.

<sup>1</sup> Adipiscor, 7, adeptus sum; so indipiscor.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Com-miniscor is compounded of con, and the obsolete miniscor; re-miniscor wants the Perfect.

<sup>3</sup> De-fetiscor, i, di-fessus sum.

<sup>· •</sup> Compounds thus: aggredior, i, aggressus sum.

<sup>6</sup> Morior has future participle moriturus; n scor, nasciturus.

#### FOURTH CONJUGATION.

#### CLASS I.—STEM IN I: PERFECT IN VI.

## 284. Principal Parts in-iō, īre, īvī, ītum.

#### The following are examples:

fīniō	fīnīre	fînîvî	finītum,	to finish.
lēnio	lënire	lēnīvī	lēnītum,	to al'eviate.
mūniō	münire	mānīvī	mūnītum,	to fortify.
pūniō	pünīre	pūnīvī	pūnītum,	to punish.
sciŏ	scīre	scīvī	scitum,	to know.
sepeliõ	sepelīre	sepelīvī	sepultum,1	to bury.
sitiō	sitīre	sitīvī		to thirst.
vāgiō	vāgīre	vāgīvī		to cry.

Note 1.— V is often dropped in the Perfect: audii for audivi; see 235, 1.

Note 2.—Desideratives (338, III.)—except ēsuriō, ire, ——, itum; nūptariō, ire, īvī, and parturiō, ire, īvī—want both Perfect and Supine. Also a few others:

bālbūtiō, eaeeūtiō, ieriō,	to stammer. to be blind. to strike.	ferāciā, ganniā, ineptia,	to be fierce. to b.irk. to trifle.	sāgiō, superbiō, tussiō,	to be wise. to be proud. to cough.

# CLASS II.—Stem in c, l, or r: Perfect in ui.

# 285. Principal Parts in-iō, îre, uī, tum.

amiciō	amicīre	amicuī (xī)	amietum,	to clothe.
aperiō	aperīre	aperui	apertum,	to open.
operio	operīre	operuī	opertum,	to eover.
saliō	salīre	saluī (iī)	(saltum), <sup>2</sup>	to leap.

# CLASS III.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN SI OR I.

## 286. Principal Parts in-iō, îre, sī, tum.

farciō	farcīre	farsī	∫ fartum,³ } } faretum, ∫	to stuff.
fulciō	fulcīre	$\mathbf{fuls}$ i	fultum,	to prop.
hauriō 4	haurīre	hausī	haustum, hausum,	to draw.
saepiõ	saepīre	saepsī	saeptum,	to hedge in.
sanciō	sancīre	sanxī	sancitum, }	to ratify.
sarció	sarcīre	sarsī	sartum,	to pateh.
vinciō	vincīre	vinxī	vinctum,	to $bind$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Supine irregular.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compounds thus: desilio, tre, ut (it), (desultum).

<sup>3</sup> Compounds thus: confercio, ire, confersi, confertum.

<sup>4</sup> The stem of haurio is haus. The Present adds 7 and changes s to r between two yowels. In haus 7 and hausum, s standing for ss or st is not changed.

## 287. Principal Parts in-io, fre, sī, sum.

rarciō	raucire	rausī	rausum,	to be hoars
sentiō		sēnsī	sēnsum,	to feel.
	sentire The following ver		'	w jea.
comperio	eomperire	eomperi	compertum,	to learn.
reperió	reperire	reperi	repertum,	to find.
venió	venire	včni <sup>1</sup>	ventum,	to come.

#### 288 DEPONENT VERRS

288. Dep	ONENT VERB	S.	
		1. Regular.	
blandior	ĩrĩ	blandītus sum,	to flatter.
largior	îrî	largītus sum,	to bestow.
mentior	îrî	mentitus sum,	to lie.
mõlior	îrī	mõlītus sum,	to strive.
partior	<b>โ</b> ทวิ	partītus sum,	to divide.
potior 2	ĩrĩ	potītus sum,	to obtain.
sortion	îrī	sortītus sum,	to draw lots,
		2. Irregular.	
assentior a	īrī	assēnsus sum,	to assent.
experior	īrī	expertus sum,	to try.
mētior	ĩrĩ	mēnsus sum,	to measure.
opperior	īrī	oppertus sum, } opperitus sum, }	to await.
ordior	īrī	orsus sum,	to begin.
orior	ĩrĩ	ortus sum,4	to rise.

#### IRREGULAR VERBS.

289. A few verbs which have special irregularities are called by way of preëminence Irregular or Anomalous Verbs. They are sum,  $ed\bar{o}$ ,  $fer\bar{o}$ ,  $vol\bar{o}$ ,  $f\bar{v}\bar{o}$ ,  $e\bar{o}$ ,  $que\bar{o}$ , and their compounds.

290. Sum, 'I am,' and its compounds.

I. The conjugation of sum has been already given (201); its numerous compounds—absum, 5 adsum, dēsum, praesum, 5 etc.—except possum and prōsum, are conjugated in the same way.

<sup>1</sup> With lengthened stem-vowel.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In the Present Indicative and Subjunctive, forms of Conjugation III. occur.

<sup>3</sup> Compounded of ad and sentio; see 287.

<sup>4</sup> Participle, oritūrus.—Present Indicative, Conjugation III., oreris, oritur. Imperfect Subjunctive, orirer or orerer.—So compounds, but adorior follows Conjugation IV.

Absum and praesum, like possum, have Present Participles, absens and praesens, used as adjectives, absent, present.

Indicative.

potui,

poterāmus.

poterimus.

potuimus.

potuerāmus.

PLURAL.

possumus, potestis, possunt.

to be able

posse,

SINGULAR.

Pres. possum, potes, potest;

II. Possum,

Imp. poteram; 1

Plup. potueram;

Fut. poterō:

Perf. potuī;

Pres.  $\begin{cases} edo, \end{cases}$ 

edis,

 $Imp. \begin{cases} ederem, & ederes, \\ essem, & esses, \end{cases}$ 

ēs. 2

F. P. potuerō: potuerimus. Subjunctive. Pres. possim, possis, possit; possīmus, possītis, possint. Imp. possem; possēmus. Perf. potuerim; potuerimus. Plup. potuissem; potuissēmus. PARTICIPLE. Infinitive. Pres. posse. Pres. potens (as an adjective). Perj. potuisse. Note 1.—Possum is compounded of potis, 'able,' and \*um, 'to be.' The parts are cometimes separated, and then potis is indeclinable: potis sum, potis sumus, etc. Note 2.-In possum observe- That potis drops is, and that t is assimilated before s: possum for potsum. That f of the simple is dropped after t: potui for potfui. 3) That the Infinitive prisse and Subjunctive prissem are shortened forms for potense and potessem. NOTE 3 .- For OLD AND RARE FORMS, see 204, 2. III. Prosum, 'I profit,' is compounded of pro, prod, 'for,' and sum, 'to be.' It retains d when the simple verb begins with e:  $pr\bar{o}sum$ ,  $pr\bar{o}dcs$ , prodest, etc. Otherwise it is conjugated like sum. 291. Edő, edere, ēdī. ēsum, to eat. This verb is sometimes regular, and sometimes takes forms similar, except in quantity,2 to those of sum which begin in cs. Thus-

INDICATIVE.

Subjunctive.

edimus.

ederēmus,

ēssēmus,

editis.

ēstis.

ederētis.

ēssētis.

edunt.

ederent.

ēssent.

edit:

ēst;

ederet;

ēsset;

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Inflected regularly through the different persons: poteram, poteras, poterat, etc. So also in the other tenses: potui, potuisti, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> These forms have  $\hat{e}$  long before s, while the corresponding forms of sum have e-short.

#### IMPERATIVE.

 $Pres. \begin{cases} ede; & edite. \\ es; & este. \end{cases}$   $Fut. \begin{cases} edito; & editote. \\ esto; & estote. \end{cases}$ 

editōte, eduntō. ēstōte.

#### INFINITIVE.

Pres, edere. esse.

Note 1.—In the Passive, istur for editur and isstur for ederitur also occur.

Note 2.—Forms in for am occur in the Present Subjunctive; edim, edis, edit, etc., for edam, edds, edat, etc.

Note 3.—Compounds are conjugated like the simple verb, but  $comed\bar{o}$  has in the Su pine  $com\bar{e}sum$  or  $com\bar{e}sum$ .

292, Fero,

ferre,

tulī,

lātum,

to bear.

#### ACTIVE VOICE.

SINGULAR. INDICATIVE.

PLURAL.

Pres. ferö, fers, fert; ferimus, fertis,² ferunt.

Imp. ferébam;³ ferébāmus.

Fut. feram; ferémus.

Perf. tulī; tulimus.

Plup. tulerām; tulerāmus. F. P. tulerō; tulerīmus.

Pres. feram; SUBJUNCTIVE. ferāmus.
Imp. ferrem; ferrēmus.

Perf. tulerim; tulerimus.

Plup. tulissem; tulissēmus.

Pres. fer; 5 IMPERATIVE. ferte.
Fut. fertő, fertőte,

fertő; fertőte, feruntő.

INFINITIVE, PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ferre.<sup>4</sup> Pres. ferens.

Perf. tulisse.

Fut. lātūrus esse. Fut. lātūrus.

<sup>1</sup> See page 136, foot-note 2.

<sup>2</sup> Fer-s, fer-t, fer-tis, like es-t, es-tis, dispense with the usual thematic vowel 4. With such vowel the forms would be ferls, ferit, feritis.

<sup>3</sup> Inflect the several tenses in full; feribam, feribas, etc.

<sup>4</sup> Ferrem, etc., for fererem, etc.; ferre for ferere (e dropped),

<sup>6</sup> Fer for fere; ferto, ferte, fertote, ferris, fertur, without thematic vowel.

GERUND. SUPINE.

Gen. ferendi,

Dat. ferendő, Acc. ferendum,

F. P. latus ero;

Acc. ferendum, Acc. lātum, Abl. ferendō. Abl. lātū.

## PASSIVE VOICE.

feror, ferrî, latus sum, to be borne.

SINGULAR INDICATIVE.

Pres. feror, ferris, fertur:1

PLURAL.
ferimur, feriminī, feruntur.

 Imp. ferēbar;
 ferēbāmur.

 Fut. ferar;
 ferēmur.

 Perf. lātus sum;
 lātī sumus.

 Plup. lātus eram;
 lātī erāmus.

lātī erimus.

Subjunctive.

Pres. ferar; ferāmur.

Imp. ferrer; ferrēmur.

Perf. lātus sim; lātī sīmus.

Plup. lātus essem; lātī essēmus.

Pres. ferre; 1 IMPERATIVE. ferimini.

Fut. fertor, fertor; feruntor.

Infinitive. Participle.

Pres. ferrī.1

Perf. lätus esse. Perf. lätus. Fut. lätum īrī. Ger. ferendus.

1. Fero has two principal irregularities:

1) Its forms are derived from three independent stems, seen in fero, tuli, latum.

2) I' dispenses with the thematic vowel, e or i, before r, s, and t.

2. Computed of fero are conjugated like the simple verb, but in a few of them the preposition suffers a cuphonic change:

al.	auferō	auferre	abstulī	ablātum
ad-	adferō	adferre	attulī	allātum
con-	confero	conferre	$contul\bar{\imath}$	eollätum
dis-	ditferō	differre	distulī	dīlātum
er-	efferō	efferre	extulī	člátum
in-	īnferō	înferre	intulī	illätum
ob-	offerõ	offerre	obtulī	oblātum
sub-	sufferõ	sufferre	sustulī	sublātum

<sup>1</sup> Without thematic vowel.

Note.—Sustuli and subditum are not often used in the sense of suffero, to bear, but they supply the Perfect and Supine of tollo, to raise; see 271.

293. Volŏ, velle, voluī, to be willing.
Nōlō, nōlle, nōluī, to be unwilling.
Mālō, mālle, māluī, to prefer.

#### Indicative.

Pres. volo,	nõlõ,	mālō,
vīs,	non vīs,	māvīs,
vult:	non vult;	māvult;
voiumus,	nõlumus,	mālumus,
vultis,	non vultis,	māvultis,
volunt.	nõlunt.	mālunt.
Imp. volēbam.	nölēbam.	mālēbam.
Fat. volam.	nōlam.	mālam.
Perf. voluī.	nõluĩ.	māluī.
Plup, volueram.	nõlueram.	mālueram.
F. P. voluero.	nõluerõ.	māluerō.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

	DUDOUNCII 112.	
Pres. velim.1	nōlim.	mālim.
Imp. vellem. <sup>2</sup>	nöllem.	mällem.
Perf. voluerim.	nõluerim.	māluerim.
Plup. voluissem.	nõluissem.	māluissem

#### IMPERATIVE.

1 -	Pres.	nōlī,	nõlīte.
	Fut.	nõlītõ,	nõlītõte,
		nölītő:	nõluntõ.

#### Infinitive.

Pres. velle.	nölle.		mälle.
Perf. voluisse.	nõluisse.	1	māluisse.

## PARTICIPLE.

		I ARTICIPLE,	
Pres. volē	ns.	nõlēns,	- 1

Note 1.—The stem of volo is vol, with variable stem-vowel, o, e, u.

Note 2.—Nolō is compounded of nō or nōn and volō; mālō, of magis and volō.

Note 3.—Rare Forms.—(1) Of volō: volt, voltis, for vult, vultis; sīs, sūltis, for sī vīs, sī vultis; vīn' for rīsne.—(2) Of nōlō: nēvīs, nēvult (nēvolt),

<sup>1</sup> Velim is inflected like sim, and rellem like essem,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Vellem and velle are syncopated forms for referem, velere; e is dropped and r assimilated: velerem, velrem, vellem; velere, velre, velle. So nollem and nolle, for nollerem and nollere; mallem and malle, for malerem and malere.

nēvelle, for non (nē) vīs, non (nē) vult, nolle.—(3) Of mālo: māvolo, mānelim, māvellem, for mālo, mālim, māllem.

mocnem, 101	maco, macim, m	autem.		
294. Fio	, fierī,	factus sun	n,	to become, be made.1
	SINGULAR.	INDICATIVE	ì.	PLURAL,
Pres	fīō, fīs, fit;			fīmus, fītis, fīunt.
	fīēbam;			fīēbāmus.
Fut.	fīam ;			fīēmus.
Perf	factus sum;			factī sumus.
Plup	. factus eram ;			factī erāmus.
F. P	. factus erō;			factī erimus.
70	-	Subjunctiv	Е.	A
	. mam;	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,		fīāmus.
•	fierem;			fierēmus.
	factus sim;			factī sīmus.
P iup	. factus essem	;		factī essēmus.
Pres.	fī;	IMPERATIVE	E.	fīte.
T	NFINITIVE.		1	Participle.
	fierī.			
Peri	factus esse.		Perf.	factus.
•	factum īrī.			faciendus.
005 11	-		.,	
295. Eo,	îre,	īvī,	itun	i, to go.
Pres	eō, īs, it;	Indicative		īmus, ītis, cunt.
	ībam;			ībāmus.
	îbō;			ībimus.
	īvī;			īvimus.
•	. īveram ;			īverāmus.
	. īverō;			īverimus.
		Crrvaria		
Pres.	eam;	Subjunctiv	E.	eāmus.
Im p.	īrem;			īrēmus.
Perf.	. īverim ;			īverīmus.
Plup	. īvissem ;			īvissēm <b>us</b> ·
		IMPERATIVE	C.	
Pres.	,		-	īte.
Fut.	ītō,			ītōte,
	ītō;			euntō.

¹ Compounds of fio are conjugated like the simple verb, but confit, difit, and infit are defective; see 297, 111., 2.

Infinitive.	Participle.
Pres. Tre.	Pres. ions, Gen. cuntis.
Perf. ivisse.	
Fut. itūrus esse.	Fut. itūrus.
GERUND.	SUPINE.
Gen. eundī,	
Dat. eundō,	
Acc. eundum,	Acc. itum,
Abl. eundō.	Abl. itū.

- 1. Et is a verb of the Fourth Conjugation, but it forms the Supine with a short vowel (itam), and is irregular in several parts of the Present System. It admits contraction according to 235: istis for irris/is, etc.
- 2. Eo, as an intransitive verb, wants the Passive, except when used impersonally in the third singular, itur, ibidur, etc.; (301, 1), but iri, the Passive Infinitive, occurs as an auxiliary in the Future Infinitive Passive of the regular conjugations; amidum iri, etc.
- 3. Compounds of  $e\bar{o}$  generally shorten  $\bar{v}v\bar{i}$  into  $i\bar{v}$ . Vene $\bar{o}$  (vinum  $e\bar{o}$ ) has sometimes  $v\bar{i}n\bar{i}$  bam for  $v\bar{e}n\bar{i}bam$ . Many compounds want the Supine, and a few admit in the Future a rare form in eam,  $i\bar{s}s$ , iet.

Note 1.—Transitive compounds have the Passive; adeo, to approach; adeor, etc.

Note 2.—Ambiō is regular, like audiō, though ambibam for ambibam occurs.

296. Queō, quīre, quīvī, quitum, to be able, and requeō, nequīre, nequīrē, (iī), nequitum, to be unable, are conjugated like eō, but they want the Imperative and Gerund, and are rare except in the Present tense.

#### DEFECTIVE VERBS.

297. Defective Verbs want certain parts. The following are the most important:<sup>2</sup>

# I. PRESENT SYSTEM WANTING.

Coepī, I have begun.	Meminī, I remember.	Õdī, $I$ hate.	
	Indicative.		
Perf. coepi. Penp. coeperam. F. P. coepero.	meminī. memineram. meminerē.	ōdī. ōderam. ōderō.	
Perf. coeperim. Plup. coepissem.	SUBJUNCTIVE. meminerim. meminissem.	öderim. ödissem.	
	IMPERATIVE.  Sing. mementő.  Plur. mementőte.		

<sup>1</sup> A Passive form, quitur, nequitur, etc., occurs before a Passive Infinitive.

<sup>2</sup> For many verbs which want the Perfect or Supine, or both, see 262-284.

1					
	I	NFINITIVE.			
Perf. coepisse. Fut. coeptūrus esse.		meminisse.		ōdisse. ōsūrus es	sse.
•	Р	ARTICIPLE	·		
Perf. cocptus. Fut. cocptūrus.				õsus.¹ õsürus.	
1. With Passive Infine eram, etc. Coeptus is Pass 2. Memini and édi are I they have the sense of the licarn,' and consucer, 'I am Present in sense.	sive in sens Present in imperfect s wout,' Fei	se. sense; hence nd Future. I fect of censu	in the Pluperfe $V\bar{o}v\bar{\epsilon}$ , 'I know, $sc\bar{o}$ , 'to accuste	ct and Fut Terfect o	ure Perfect f në scō, 'to
11. PART		ACH SYS	TEM WAN	TING.	
Indic. Pres. āiō, Imp. āiēbam, Perf. ——	ais,3	-ēbat;	-ēbāmus,		āiunt. -ēbant.4
Subj. Pres. ————————————————————————————————————			<del></del>		āiant.
2. Inquam, I say.					
In iie. Pres. inquam, Imp. —— Fit. —— Ferf. ——	inquiës,	inquiebat; 4 inquiet; inquit;		inquitis,	inquiunt.
Imper. Pres. inque. Fut	. inquito	•			
3. Fārī, to speak. <sup>5</sup>					
Indie. Pres. —— Fut. fabor, Perf. fatus sum,		fātur; fābitur; est;	fātī sumus,		sunt.
Plup. fātus eram, Subj. Perf. fātus sim,	erās, sīs,	erat; sit;	fātī erāmus, fātī sīmus,	erātis, sītis,	erant.

fatī essēmus, essētis, essent.

Ger. fandus.

Ferf. fātus.

Supine, Abl. fatū.

Piup, fatus essem, esses, esset;

Gerund, Gen. and Abl. fandī, dō.

Imper. Pres. fāre. Infin. Pres. fārī. Purt. Pres. (fāns) fantis.

<sup>1</sup> Osus is Active in sense, hat'ng, but is rare except in compounds: exisus, perisus.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In this verb a and i do not form a diphthong; before a vowel the i has the sound of  $y: \tilde{a} \cdot y\tilde{a}, \tilde{a} \cdot yunt$ ; see **10**, 4, 3).

<sup>3</sup> The interrogative form aisne is often shortened into ain'.

<sup>4</sup> Aibam, aibās, etc., occur; also inquibat for inquiebat.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Fire is used chiefly in poetry. Compounds have some forms not found in the simple: adjamur, adjamin, adjabar; efficieris.

## III. IMPERATIVES AND ISOLATED FORMS.

#### 1. IMPERATIVES.

havē,	havite;	havētō ;	Inf. havere,1	hail.
salvē,	salvēte,	salvētō ; 2	° salvēre,	hail.
cedă.	cette,			tell me, give me.
apage,				begone.

2. ISOLATED FORMS.

	INDICATIV	E.	Sumu	NCTIVE.		
confit;	r.		eonfrat ;	Imperfect.	,	to be done.
dent, Infit,	dēfīunt; īnfīunt,	,	dēfīat ;		deneri,	to be wanting. to begin.
	Sub. Imp.			— — fore		fore.3

#### IMPERSONAL VERBS.

298. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English Impersonal with it: licet, it is lawful; oportet, it behooves. They are conjugated like other verbs, but are used only in the third person singular of the Indicative and Subjunctive, and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.

# 299. The most important Impersonal Verbs are-

Ind. Pres. quaeso, quaesumus,4 1 pray.

decet, decuit,	it becomes.6	piget, { piguit, } it grieres.
libet, { libitum est, }	it pleases.8	paenitet, paenituit, it causes re-
licet, { lieuit,   lieitum est, }	it is lawful.	aret.
liquet, licuit,	it is evident 6	pudet, puduit, puditum est. it shames.
miseret, miseritum est	, it ervites pity.7 it behooves.	taedet, taeduit, it wearies.

1. Participles are generally wanting, but a few occur, though with a somewhat modified sense; (1) from line; (tb hes, willing; (2) from lice; lieins, free; lieitus, allowed; (3) from parniter; paenitens, penitent; paenitendus, to be repented of; (4) from puber; pudins, modest; pudendus, shameful.

2. Genunds are generally wanting, but occur in rare instances: paenitendum, pudendo.

<sup>1</sup> Also written ar , arête, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Future satrēbis is also used for tile Imperative.

<sup>3</sup> Forem = essem; fore = futurum esse; see 204, 2.

<sup>4</sup> Old forms for quaero and quaerimus.

<sup>5</sup> The subject is generally an infinitive or clause, but may be a noun or pronoun denoting a tring, but not a person: hoe fiert operted, that this should be done is necessary.

<sup>6</sup> These four occur in the third person plural, but without a personal subject.

<sup>7</sup> Mê miseret, I pity; me paenitet, I repent.

<sup>8</sup> Also the compound, pertaedet, pertaesum est, it greatly wearies.

300. Generally Impersonal are several verbs which designate the changes of the weather, or the operations of nature:

Fulminat, it hightens; grandinat, it hails; lūcēscit, it grows light; pluit, it rains; rōrst, dew falls; tonat, it taunders.

301. Many other verbs are often used impersonally:

Accidit, it happens; appāret, it appears; constat, it is evident; contingit, it happens; delectat, it delights; dolet, it grieves; interesi, it concerns; jurat, it delights; patet, it is plain; placet, it pleases; praestat, it is better; refert, it concerns.

1. In the Passive Voice intransitive verbs can be used only impersonally. The participle is then neuter:

Milie creditur, it is credited to me, I am believed;  $tib\bar{t}$   $cr\bar{e}ditur$ , you are believed;  $cr\bar{t}ditum$  est, it was believed;  $cert\bar{u}tur$ , it is contended; curritur, there is running, people run;  $p\bar{u}qn\bar{u}tur$ , it is fought, they, we, etc., fight;  $v\bar{v}vitur$ , we, you, they live.

2. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (234) is often used impersonally. The

participle is then neuter:

Mate scribendum est, I must write; tibi scribendum est, you must write; illi scribendum est, he must write.

## CHAPTER V.

#### PARTICLES.

302. The Latin has four parts of speech sometimes called *Particles*: the *Adverb*, the *Preposition*, the *Conjunction*, and the *Interjection*.

## ADVERBS.

- 303. The Adverb is the part of speech which is used to qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs: *celeriter currere*, to run swiftly; *tum celer*, so swift; *tum celeriter*, so swiftly.
- 304. In their origin, Adverbs are mainly the oblique cases<sup>1</sup> of nouns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns.
  - I. ACCUSATIVES .- Many Adverbs were originally Accusatives:
- 1. Accusatives of Nouns: partim, partly; forūs,¹ out of doors; diū¹ (for dium²), for a long time. Here belong numerous adverbs in tim and sim, eniefly from verbal nouns³ no longer in use:¹ contemptim, contemptuously;
- <sup>1</sup> Some, indeed, are the oblique cases of words not otherwise used in Latin, and some are formed by means of case-endings no longer used in the regular declensions.
  - <sup>2</sup> Accusative of  $dius = di\bar{e}s$ .
- <sup>3</sup> Some adverbs in *tim* and *sim* are from adjectives: *singulitim*, one by one. Yn time doubtless *tim*, *ātim*, *sim*, and *im* came to be regarded simply as adverbial suffixes, and were so used in forming new adverbs.

sensim, perceptibly, slowly; raptim, hastily; statim, steadily; fartim, by stealth.

- 2. Accusatives of Nouns with Prepositions: ad-modum, very, to the full measure; in-vicem, in turn; in-cassum, in vain; ob-iter, on the road, in passing; ob-viam, in the way, against; post-modum, after a short time; inter-diù and inter-dius, during the day; inter-dum, during the time, in the mean time.
  - 3. Accusatives of Adjectives:
- 1) Neuters in um, a, e, as, is: solum, only; multum, multa, much; nimium, too much; parum, little; secundum, secondly; Sterum, ctera, as to the rest; verum, truly; abunde, abundantly; facile, easily; saepe, often; plus, more; minus, less; saepius, more frequently; manis, more, rather.
- 2) Feminines in am, ās: bifāriam, in two parts; multifāriam, in many parts; clam = calam, secretly; palam, openly; perperam, wrongly; aliās, otherwise.
- 4. Accessives of Pronouns: quam, how much; tam, so much; tum, then; tun-c, at that time; nun-c, now.

## II. ABLATIVES .- Many Adverbs were originally Ablatives:

1. Ablatives of Notes in  $\delta$ , e, is:  $erg\bar{o}$ , accordingly; \* numer $\delta$ , exactly; forte, by chance;  $j\bar{u}re$ , rightly; sponte, willingly; grātiīs, or grātīs, gratuitously; forīs, out of doors.

Note.—The ablative is sometimes accompanied by a preposition or by an adjective: <code>ex-templo</code>, immediately—lit., from the moment; <code>?lico</code> for <code>in loco</code>, on the spot; <code>quot-aunis</code>, <code>yearly</code>; <code>multi-modis</code>, in many ways; <code>ho-dif</code> (<code>hloc-dif</code>), to-day; <code>quit-rc</code>, wherefore, by which thing.

2. Ablatives of Adjectives and Participles in  $\tilde{a}$ , Feminine,  $\tilde{o}$ ,  $\tilde{\epsilon}$ , and  $\tilde{i}$ , Neuter:  $dextr\tilde{a}^{10} = dexter\tilde{a}$ , on the right;  $extr\tilde{a}^{,11}$  on the outside;  $infr\tilde{a}$ , if on the under side;  $intr\tilde{a}$ , on the inside;— $intr\tilde{o}$ , within;  $illtr\tilde{o}$ , beyond;  $perpetu\tilde{o}$ , continually;  $r\tilde{a}r\tilde{o}$ , rarely;  $subit\tilde{o}$ , suddenly;  $auspic\tilde{a}t\tilde{o}$ , after taking the aus-

2 Often becoming eonjunctions—déterum, but. Non, from ne-unum, also belongs here.

3 From obsolete abundis.

4 Here may be added semel, 'once' and simul, 'at the same time,' both for simile.

b Secus, 'otherwise'; tenus, 'as far as'; prôtinus, 'straightforward'; and versus, 'toward,' doubtless belong here.

6 Originally partem or viam may have been used,

7 Quam, from stem qna, in qni, quve; tam, tam, from stem ta, to, in the final syllable of iste, for isctus, isctus; tunce = tuucee, nunce = numcee, in which num is from the stem no, seen also in num, 'whether,' and also in its original form, na, in nam, 'for.'

<sup>6</sup> Literally, by the deed. Compare Greek έργον, έργφ.

9 That  $\hat{\epsilon}$  is here an ablative ending is proved by the fact that it appears in early Latin in the form of  $\hat{\epsilon}d$ , an undoubted ablative ending.

10 With these feminines, parte or viā may have been originally used.

<sup>11</sup> Often becoming prepositions. In fact, all prepositions in  $\tilde{a}$  are derived from adverbs which were originally ablatives in  $\tilde{a}d$ , afterward  $\tilde{a}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>  $Di\dot{u}$  and dum are explained as forms of dium=diem, and dius as for  $di\bar{e}s$ ; see Corssen, I., pp. 232–236; II., 45×.

piees; cōnsultō, after deliberating; sortitō, by lot, i. e., after easting lots;—dōctē, learnedly; līberē, freely; certē,¹ surely; rēctē, rightly; vērē, truly;—dōctissinē, most skillfully; māximē,² especially;—brevē, briefly.

3. Ablatives of Pronouns:  $\epsilon \tilde{a}$ , there, in that way;  $h\tilde{a}c$ , here, in this way;  $qu\tilde{a}$ , where, in which way;  $\epsilon \tilde{a}d\epsilon m$ , by the same road, in the same way.

Note.—Several pronominal adverbs denote direction toward a point:  $e\bar{o}$ , to that place;  $h\bar{o}c$ ,  $h\bar{u}c$ , to this place,  $^3$   $itl\bar{o}$ ,  $i'l\bar{o}$ -c,  $itl\bar{u}$ -c, to that place;  $ist\bar{o}$ ,  $ist\bar{o}$ -c,  $ist\bar{u}$ -c, to the place where you are;  $qu\bar{o}$ , to which place.  $\sim$ 

#### III. LOCATIVES.—Some Adverbs were originally Locatives:

- 1. Locatives of Nouns and Adjectives in  $\bar{\imath}$  or  $\bar{\imath}$ : her $\bar{\imath}$ , yesterday; temper $\bar{\imath}$ , in time; vesper $\bar{\imath}$ , in the evening; pergy $\bar{\imath}$ , or pergy $\bar{\imath}$ , in a foreign land.
- 2. Locatives of Pronouns: hie, here; illie, there; istic, there where you are; sic, in this way, thus; uti, uti, uti, uti, which way; ibi, there; ubi, where.

Note.—Locative forms in im also occur:  $\delta lim$ , formerly; utrim-que, on both sides; illim, illin-c, from that place; hin-c, from this place; often with  $d\tilde{e}: utrin$ -de, from both sides; in-d, from that point, thence.

# IV. Adverss in tus and ter.—Adverbs are also formed by means of the endings tus 7 and ter: 7

Fundi-tus, from the foundation; rādīci-tus, from the roots, utterly; dīvīni-tus, by divine appointment, divinely; forti-ter, bravely; ācri-ter, sharply; dūri-ter, harshly; ēlegan-ter, elegantly; aman-ter, lovingly; prūden-ter, prudently.

Note 1.—The stem-vowel before tus becomes i, and consonant stems assume i: fundi-tus,  $r\bar{u}d\bar{u}c$ -i-tus. The stem-vowel before ter also becomes i:  $d\bar{u}ri$ -ter. Consonant stems, however, do not assume i, but drop final t: amant-ter, aman-ter.

Note 2.—Many adverbs are simply adverbial phrases or clauses whose parts have become united in writing. In these compound forms prepositions

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> As  $\hat{e}$  is an ablative ending,  $cert\tilde{o}$  and  $cert\tilde{e}$  are only different forms of the same word; so also  $r\hat{c}ct\tilde{o}$  and  $r\hat{e}ct\tilde{e}$ ,  $x\tilde{e}r\tilde{o}$  and  $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{e}$ , though the two forms do not always have precisely the same meaning:  $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{o}$ , in truth;  $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{e}$ , truly.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This is the regular ending in superlatives,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> These are sometimes explained as *Datives*, but they are probably *Ablatives*; illē, lit., by that way or road, finally came to mean to that place, i. e., to the place to which the road leads.

<sup>4</sup> Here the Locative ending is 7: h7, iU7, ist7, si; e for ce is a demonstrative ending, meaning here. Sie is the Locative of sa; see 313, foot-note.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Uti contains two stems—u or cu (seen in cui), and ta or to (seen in te in is-te).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> In ibi and  $ub\bar{i}$  the ending is  $b\bar{\imath}$ ; i in  $ib\bar{i}$  is the stem of is, he; u in  $ub\bar{i}$  is the same as in  $ut\bar{\imath}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Seen also in in-ter, in the midst; in-tus, within; sub-ter and sub-tus, below. Theso suffixes are of uncertain origin; the former appears to be a case-suffix with ablative meaning, no longer used in declension; the latter, like ter in al-ter, nos-ter, and dexter, has lost its case-suffix, and may therefore represent either terō with an ablative suffix, or terum with an accusative suffix. See Corssen, 11., p. 299; Kühner, I., p. 679.

<sup>8</sup> The stem-vowel o is changed to i.

are especially common, and sometimes seem to be used with eases with which they do not otherwise occur:  $ant-e\bar{a}$ , before, before that;  $inter-e\bar{a}$ , in the mean time;  $post-e\bar{a}$ , after;  $ante-h\bar{a}c$ , before this; quem-ad-modum, in what manner; param-per, for a while;  $n\bar{u}-per=novum-per$ , lately;  $tant\bar{v}-per$ , for so long a time;  $vid\bar{v}$  licet  $=vid\bar{v}re$  licet, clearly—lit., 'it is permitted to see';  $s\bar{c}ilicet=s\bar{c}ire$  licet, certainly; forsitan=fors sit an, perhaps.

305. Many Pronominal Adverbs, like the pronouns from which they are formed (191), are correlatives of each other, as will be seen in the following

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES.

INTERBOGATIVE. INDEFINITE.		DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
	I. Place in	n which.	
ubĭ, where ? 2	alicubi, somewhere; uspiam, usquam, anywhere; ubivis, where you please.	hīc, here; istīc, there; illīc, there; illīc, there; ibī, there.	$ub ilde{i}$ , where.
	. II. Place	ro wnich.	
<i>quō</i> , whither?	aliquō, to some place; quōlibet, quōvīs, whither you please.	hāc, to this place; sistāc, to that place; illāc, to that place; eō, to that place; eōdem, to the same place.	<i>quō</i> , whither.
quörsum,4 to what place? to what end?	aliquō-vorsum,4 to some place.	hōrsum,4 to this place.	quörsum, to which place or end.
	III. PLACE F	ROM WHICH.	
unde, whence?	alicunde, from some place; undelibet, from any place.		unde, whence.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Some scholars, regarding eā and hāc in these and similar eases as ablatives, think that all such compounds had their origin at a time when ante, post, inter, etc., admitted that case; but Corssen treats eā and hāc in all such eases as neuters in the accusative plural. See Corssen, H., p. 455; Bücheler, p. 32.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Observe that the question ubi, 'where'?' may be answered indefinitely by alicubi, uspiam, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative either alone or with a relative: hic, 'here'; hic, ubi, 'here, where.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Hic, 'here,' 'near me'; istic, 'there,' 'near yon'; illic, 'there,' 'near him'; ibi, 'there,' a weak demonstrative and the most common correlative of ubi, 'where.' See distinction in pronouns (191). A similar distinction exists in hūc, istūc, illūc, and eō.

<sup>4</sup> For quō-rorsum = quō-rersum, 'whither turned'; aliquō-rorsum, hūc-vorsum.

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES .- (Continued.)

Interrogative.	Indefinite.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
	IV. T	IME.	
quandô, when? quotièns, how often?	quandō, aliquandō, unquam, at any time. aliquotièns, somewhat often.	nunc, now; tum, then; tunc, at that very time; ibi, then. totiens, so often.	quom, cum, quum, when. quotiens, as, as often.
	V. WAY, MAN	ner, Degree.	
quā, by or in what way?	aliquā, by or in some way; quātīs, by any way.	hāc, by this way; istāc, by that way; illāc, by that way; eā, by that way; eā- dem, by the same	quā, by which way.
ut, uti, how? quam, how much?	aliquā, in some way, etc. aliquam, somewhat.	way. $ita, s\bar{\imath}c, so, thus.$ $tam, so much.$	ut, utī, in which way, as. quam, as.

Note 1.—From Relative Adverbs are formed General or Indefinite Relatives by appending -eumque or by reduplicating the form: ubicumque, ubiubi, wheresoever; quicumque, quiquō, whithersoever.

Note 2.-Other examples are-

- 1) Place:—alibī, elsewhere; ibīdem, in the same place; necubi, lest anywhere, that nowhere; sīeubi, if anywhere; aliō, to another place; citrō, to this side; ūltrō citrōque, to and fro; utrōque, to both place; aliunde, from another place; indidem, from the same place; utrimque, from or on both sides; undique, from all sides.
- 2) TIME:—hodiē, to-day; herī, yesterday; crās, to-morrow; prīdiē, the day before; postrīdiē, the day after; jam, already; jam tum, even then; jamdīū, jamdādum, jamprīdem, long ago; quondam, at a certain time; ōlim, formerly, hereafter; interim, intereā, meanwhile; anteī, prius, before; post, posteā, afterward; unquam, ever; nānquam, never; semper, at all times.
- 3) WAY, MANNER, DEGREE:—adeē, so; aliter, otherwise; magis, more; paene, almost; palam, openly; prōrsus, wholly; rīte, rightly; valdē, greatly; rīx, scarcely.
- Cause:—cūr, why; eō, for this reason; ideō, idcircō, proptereā, on this account; ergō, igitur, itaque, therefore, accordingly.

Note 3.—Nesei $\delta$ , with an interrogative adverb, is often equivalent to an indefinite adverb:  $nesei\delta$   $qu\delta modo$ , I know not in what way =  $qu\delta dammodo$ , in some way;  $nesei\delta$   $ub\delta$  =  $alicub\delta$ , in some place;  $nesei\delta$  unde = alicunde, from some place; see also 191, note.

Note 4.—Adverbial phrases are formed by combining mirum or nimium with quantum: mirum quantum, it is wonderful how much = wonderfully much, wonderfully; nimium quantum, exceedingly. Mirum quan, sānē quam, and valdē quam have a similar force: how wonderfully, how very, how greatly = exceedingly, wonderfully.

NOTE 5.—For Interrogative Particles, see 311, 8.

Note 6 .- For Negative Particles, see 552.

306. Comparison.—Most adverbs are derived from adjectives, and are dependent upon them for their comparison. The comparative is the accusative neuter singular of the adjective, and the superlative changes the ending us of the adjective into 5:1

altus,	altior,	altissimus,	lofty.
altē,	altius,	altissimē,	logtily.
prūdēns,	prüdentior,	prūdentissimus,	prudent.
prüdenter,	prūdentius,	prūdentissimē,	prudently.

1. When the adjective is compared with magis and māximē, the adverb is compared in the same way:

ēgregius,	magis ēgregius,	māximē ēgregius,	excellent.
ēgregiē,	magis ēgregiē,	māximē ēgregiē,	excellently,

2. When the adjective is irregular, the adverb has the same irregularity:

bonus,	melior,	optimus,	good.
bene,	melius,	optimē,	well.
male,	pējus,	pessimē,	bodly.

3. When the adjective is defective, the adverb is generally defective:

	dēterior,	dēterrimus,	worse.
	dēterius,	dēterrimē,	worse.
novus,		novissimus,	new,
novē,		novissimē,	newly.

4. A few not derived from adjectives are compared:

diũ,	diūtius,	diūtissimē,	for a long time.
saepe,	saepius,	saepissimē,	often.
satis,	satius,	***************************************	sufficiently.
nuper,		nūperrimē,	recently.

- 5. Most adverbs not derived from adjectives, as also those from adjectives incapable of comparison (169), are not compared: hīc, here; nunc, now; vulgāriter, commonly.
- 6. Superlatives in ō or um are used in a few adverbs: prīmō, prīmum, potissimum.

#### PREPOSITIONS.

307. The Preposition is the part of speech which shows the relations of objects to each other:

In Italia esse, to be in Italy ; ante me, before me.

NOTE 1.—Prepositions were originally adverbs, and, like other adverbs (304), are in origin petrified case-forms.  $^2$ 

<sup>1</sup> See 304, IL, 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Thus prepositions in  $\tilde{a}$  are in origin ablatives:  $cire\tilde{a}$ ,  $citr\tilde{i}$ ,  $centr\tilde{a}$ ,  $erg\tilde{a}$ ,  $extr\tilde{a}$ ,  $infr\tilde{a}$ , etc: while those in m are accusatives: circum, circum, circ, etc. These case-forms passed into adverbs denoting direction, situation, etc.; but they finally became associated with nours in the accusative or ablative as auxiliary to the case-ending;  $lor\tilde{a}$ 

Note 2.—For the Use of Prepositions, see 432-437.

NOTE 3 .- For the FORM and MEANING of Propositions in Composition, see 344, 5.

308. Inseparable Prepositions. — Ambi, amb, 'around,' 'about'; dis, dī, 'asunder'; in, 'not,' 'un-'; por, 'toward,' 'forth'; re, red, 'back'; sē, sēd, 'aside,' 'apart'; and vē, 'not,' are called Inseparable Prepositions, because they are used only in composition.

Note.—For the Form and Meaning of the Inseparable Prepositions in Composition, see 344.6.

#### CONJUNCTIONS.

- 309. Conjunctions are mere connectives. They are either Coordinate or Subordinate.
  - 1. Coördinate Conjunctions connect similar constructions:

Labor voluptāsque, 2 labor and pleasure. Karthāginem cēpit āc 2 dīruit, he took and destroyed Carthage.

2. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions:

Haec DUM 2 colligunt, effugit, while they collect these things, he escapes.

- 310. Coördinate Conjunctions comprise—
- 1. Copulative Conjunctions, denoting union:

Et, que, atque, a ac, and; etiam, quoque, also; neque, nec, and not; neque —neque, nec-nec, neque-nec, neither-nor.

2. DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS, denoting SEPARATION:

Aut, 4 vel, re, sive (seu), or; aut—aut, vel—vel, either—or; sive—sive, either—or.

Note.—Here belong interrogative particles in double or disjunctive questions: utrum, num, or ne-an, whether—or; an, or;  $ann\bar{a}n$ , necne, or not; see 353.

3. Adversative Conjunctions, denoting opposition:

= from a place; ex locō = out of a place; aliquid locō movire, to move anything from a place; aliquid ex locō movire, to move anything out of a place. An adverb thus separated from the verb and brought into connection with a noun ceased to be an adverb and became a preposition.

<sup>1</sup> Like other prepositions, these were doubtless originally case-forms.

<sup>2</sup> Thus que connects two nominatives, āc two indicatives which are entirely coördinate, took and destroyed, but dum connects the subordinate clause, haec—colliquint, with the principal clause, effugit—he escapes while they collect these things.

<sup>3</sup> Copulative conjunctions are  $et = \text{Greek } i\pi i$ ,  $que = \kappa ai$ , and their compounds—et-iam or et-jam, at-que, quo-que, ne-que.  $\bar{A}c$  is a shortened form of at-que; nec, of ne-que.

4 Disjunctives are aut, vel, ve, with their compounds: vel = vel; s, 'should you wish,' offering a choice,  $ve = v\bar{\imath}s$ , 'you wish,' as in  $qu\bar{\imath}$ - $v\bar{\imath}s$ , 'any you please';  $s\bar{\imath}ve = s\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}s$ , 'if you wish.'

Sed, antem, verum, vero, but; at, but, on the contrary; atqui, rather; exterum, but still, moreover; tamen, yet.

4. Illative Conjunctions, denoting inference:

Ergō, igitur, inde, proinde, itaque, hence, therefore; see also 554, IV., 2.

5. Causal Conjunctions, denoting cause:

Nam, namque, enim, etenim, for.3

## 311. Subordinate Conjunctions comprise—

1. Temporal Conjunctions, denoting time:

Quandō, quom, cum, or quum, when; ut, ubī, as, when; cum (quom or quum) prīmum, ut prīmum, abī prīmum, simul, simulāc, simul āc, simulatque, simul atque, as soon as; dum, dōnec, quoud, quamdiū, while, until, as long us; antequam, priusqu tm. before; posteūquam, atter.

2. Comparative Conjunctions, denoting comparison:

It, uti, sicut, sicuti, as, so as; relut, just as; present, prout, according as, in comparison with; quam, as, tanquam, quasi, ut si, āc sī, velut sī, as if.

3. Conditional Conjunctions, denoting condition:

Sī,º if; sī nōn, nisī, nī, if not, sīn, but if; rī quidem, if indeed; sī modo, dum modo, dummo lo, if only, provided.

4. Concessive Conjunctions, denoting concession:

Quamquam, licet, cum (quom, or quum), although, etsi, tametsi, etionsi, even u; quamvis, quantumvis, quantumlibet, however much, although; ut, grant that; n5, grant that not.

5. Final Conjunctions, denoting purpose or end:

Ut, uti, that, in order that; nē, nēve (nen), that not; quē, that; quēminus, that not.

6. Consecutive Conjunctions, denoting consequence of result:

Ut, so that, ut non, quin, so that not.

- ¹ Conjunctions, tike adverbs, consist largely of case-forms, chiefly from pronominal stems. Thus, sed, vêrô, ergô, etc., are explained as ablatives (sed from suñ); antem, vêrum, vêterum, quam, quod, quom, or cum, etc., as accusatives; que, ubi, uti, ut, etc., as locatives.
  - 2 Lit., as to the rest.
  - 3 But most Causal Conjunctions are subordinate; see 311, 7.
- 4 Quom, the original form out of which cum and quum were developed (22; 26, foot-note), occurs in early Latin, as in Plautus. Cum is the approved form in classical Latin.
  - <sup>5</sup> See 304, I., 1 and 2, foot-notes.
  - <sup>6</sup> Probably locative, possibly instrumental; see page 73, foot-note 2.
- <sup>7</sup> Licet is strictly a verb, meaning it is permitted; vis, in quam-ris and quantum-vis, is also a verb; quam-vis, 'as much as you wish'; as is also libet, 'it pleases,' in quantum-libet, 'as much as is pleasing.'
  - <sup>8</sup> Quêminus =  $qu\bar{q}$  minus, 'by which less';  $qu\bar{q}n\bar{q} = qu\bar{q}$   $n\bar{q}$ , 'by which not.'

7. Causal Conjunctions, denoting cause:

Quia, quod, quoniam, quando, because, inasmuch as; cum (quom, quum), since; quandoquidem, siquidem, utpote, since indeed.

8. Interrogative Conjunctions, denoting inquiry:3

No, nonne, num, utrum, an, whether; an non, necne, or not.

### INTERJECTIONS.

- 312. Interjections are certain particles used as expressions of feeling or as mere marks of address.<sup>4</sup> They may express—
  - 1. Astonishment: ō, hem, ehem, atat, bubae, vāh, ēn, ecce.
  - 2. Joy: iō, ēvoe, euge, ēja, ō, papaz.
  - 3. Sorrow: vae, ei, heu, cheu, bhe, ah, au, pro.
  - 4. Disgust: aha, phū, apage.
  - 5. Calling: heus, ō, eho, chodum,
  - 6. Praise: eu, euge, ēja, hēja.

# CHAPTER VI.

# FORMATION OF WORDS.

#### SECTION I.

#### ROOTS.-STEMS.-SUFFIXES.

313. Words are formed from stems (16, 1), and stems from roots or from other stems.

Note 1.—Thus status, 'position,' is formed from the stem statu by adding the nominative suffix  $s.^5$  but the stem statu is itself formed from the root sta by appending the derivative suffix tu.

<sup>1</sup> Compounded of quom-jam, when now.

<sup>2</sup> Lit., if indeed.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> These are sometimes classed as *Adverbs*. In some of their uses they are plainly *Conjunctions*, while in other cases they approach closely to the nature of *Adverbs*. As a matter of convenience they may be called *Interrogative Particles*; see 351, 1.

<sup>4</sup> Some interjections seem to be the simple and natural utterance of feeling, and accordingly do not appear to have been built up, like other words, from roots and stems, but to be themselves specimens of the unorganized elements of human speech. Others, however, are either inflected forms, as age, 'come,'  $apage = \tilde{\pi}\pi\alpha\gamma\epsilon$ , 'begone,' or mutitated sentences or clauses:  $mchercul\bar{\epsilon}\kappa$ , mehercule, etc.,  $=m\bar{\epsilon}$  Hercul's juvet, 'may Hercules protect me';  $m\bar{\epsilon}aus\bar{\epsilon}\nu$ , 'may Castor protect me';  $m\bar{\epsilon}dus\bar{\epsilon}\kappa$ , 'may the true God help me';  $\bar{\epsilon}aus\bar{\epsilon}\nu = \bar{\epsilon}\kappa$  ( $as\bar{\epsilon}\nu$ , 'le Castor.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> This s is doubtless a remnant of an old demonstrative, sa, meaning that, he, she.

Note 2.-Words are either simple or compound:

- 1, Simple, when formed from single roots with or without suffixes.
- this pound, when formed by the union of two or more roots or stems; see
   HI.
- 314. Roots.—Roots are the primitive elements out of which all words in our family of languages have been formed.\(^1\) They are of two kinds:
- I. PREDICATIVE ROOTS, also called VERBAL ROOTS.<sup>2</sup> These designate or name objects, actions, or qualities: cs in cs-t, he is; i in i-rc, to go; dxc in dyc-s = dyx, leader: doc in doc-ilis, docile.
- II. Demonstrative Roots,<sup>3</sup> also called Pronominal Roots. These do not name objects or actions, but simply point out the relation of such objects or actions to the speaker: me in  $me\bar{i}$ , of me; tu in  $tu\bar{i}$ , of you; i in is, that, that one, he.
- 315. The Stems of simple words may be divided into three classes: Root Stems, Primary Stems, and Secondary Stems.
- 316. Root Stems are either identical with roots, or are formed from them without the aid of suffixes:

Due-is, 'of a leader,' root-stem due; ' $\circ$  c-t's, 'you are,' root-stem e's; r'g-t's, 'diff the voice,' root-stem e'o'c; murmur-t's, 'of a murmur,' root-stem murmur.

# 317. Primary Stems are formed from roots by means of suffixes: 6

- <sup>1</sup> These roots were probably all monosyllable, and were once used separately as words, but not as parts of speech. Thus es, the root of sum, esse, 'to be,' and i, the root of  $e^{\frac{i}{2}}$ , ire, 'to go,' were doubtless used in their original form, as significant words, long before the verbs themselves had an existence.
- <sup>2</sup> Observe that from this class of roots, whether called *Predicative* or *Verbal*, may be formed the stems, not only of verbs, but also of nouns, adjectives, and, in fact of all the parts of speech except pronouns.
- The learner should note the difference in signification between Predicative and Demonstrative Poots. Thus dur has a definite meaning, and must always designate one who leads; while the pronoun ego is not the name of any person or thing, but may be used by any and every person in speaking of himself.
- 4 The learner has already become familiar with the use of stems in the inflection of nouns, adjectives, etc.; but stems, like roots, were probably once used as words.
- <sup>6</sup> The basis of every inflected word is a stem. Duc is therefore the stem of duc-is, but as it can not be derived from a more primitive form, it is also a root. According to some authorities, rig, the stem of rig-is, and rig, the stem of rig-is, and rig, the stem of rig-is, and rig, and roc in ree-is, are not roots, but derived from more primitive forms -reg in reg-is, and roc in ree-is, according to other authorities, however, rig and rig are only two forms of the same root; so also roc and rig and dic. The stem murmur is not a root, but formed from the root mur by reduplication. See Curtius, Chron., p. 25; Schleicher, pp. 311-35); Meyer, pp.  $\S$  371-376.

<sup>6</sup> Any suffix used to form a Primary Stem is called a Primary Suffix; see 320.

Root.	Suffix.	STEM.	WORD.	
ar,	vo,	ar-vo,	ar-vu-m,1	field.
fac,	to.	fac-to,	fac-tu-s,1	made.
sta,	tu,	sta-tu,	sta-tu-s,	position.

Note.—All stems formed from verb-stems are also generally classed as *Primary Siems*; <sup>2</sup> cūrū-tor, 'guardian,' 'curator,' from cūrū, 'to care for,' from cūrū, 'care.'

# 318. SECONDARY STEMS are formed from other stems 3 by means of suffixes: 4

STEM.	SUFFIX.	SECONDARY STEM.	WORD.	
cīvi,5	co;	cīvi-co,	cīvieus,	civic.
vīctōr,5	iā;	vīctōr-iǎ,	vīctōria,	victory.
vīctor,	īc;	vīctōr-ie,	vīctrīx,6	victress.

# 319. The STEMS OF COMPOUND WORDS are formed by the union of two or more stems, or of a stem with a root:

fu-erā,7	fu-erā-s,	you had been.
grand-aevo,8	grand-aevu-s,	of great age.
igni-color,9	igni-color,	fire-colored.
māgn-animo,10	māgn-animu-s,	great-souled.

Note 1.—Words are formed from Stems by means of the Suffixes of Inflection; see 46 and 202, note 1.

Note 2.—A single root often gives rise to a large class of forms. Thus, from the root sta, 'to stand,' are derived—

- 1. The numerous forms which make up the conjugation of the verb stō, stāre, stctī, stātum, to stand.
  - 2. All the forms of the verb sisto, sistere, stiti, statum, 'to place,'
- 3. Numerous other forms. Thus (1), sta-bilis, 'stable,' 'firm.' from which are derived stabiliō, 'to make firm'; stabilitōs, 'firmness,' and stabiliter, 'firmly'; (2) stabulum, 'a standing place,' 'stable.' from which are derived stabulō, and stabulor, 'to have a standing place'; (3) stāmen, 'something standing.' 'warp in an upright loom'; (4) statim, 'in standing,' 'at once'; (5) statiō, 'standing'; (6) statīvus, 'stationary'; (7) stator, 'a stayer'; and (5) status, 'position.' from which is derived statuō, 'to place,' which in turn becomes the basis of statua, 'a statue.' and statūra, 'stature.'
  - <sup>1</sup> Ar-vo-m weakened to arrum, fac-to-s to factus; see 22, 2.
- <sup>2</sup> This is a matter of convenience, as new stems, or words, are formed from verb-stems in the same manner as from roots; see Schleicher, p. 347.
- 3 Except verb-stems. Remember that stems formed from verb-stems are treated as Primary; see 317, note.
- <sup>4</sup> Any suffix used to form a *Secondary* stem is called a *Secondary* suffix, but many suffixes may be either *primary* or *secondary*. Thus *co* in *civicus* is Secondary, as it is added to a stem; but in *locus*, 'place,' it is Primary, as it is added to a root.
  - <sup>6</sup> Cīri is the stem of cīris, citizen; rīctor of vīctor, conqueror.
  - 6 For victoria, by contraction.
  - Compounded of root fu with stem ent from the root es; see 203, note 2, and 243.
  - 8 For grandi-aero.
  - <sup>9</sup> Compounded of igni, the stem of ignis, 'fire,' and of color, the stem of color, 'color,'
- 10 Compounded of magno, the stem of magnus, 'great,' and of animo, the stem of animus, 'soul'; magno-animo becoming magnunimo.

320. Suffixes.—Most suffixes appear to have been formed from a comparatively small number of primitive elements called

#### PRIMARY SUFFIXES.

I.	11.2	Examples.
a,	ă,3 o, ē, e, i, ŏ, u,	and <b>o</b> in nouns and adjectives, <b>o</b> in nouns, and <b>e</b> , <b>i</b> , <b>o</b> , and <b>u</b> in verbs: serib-a, writer; fug-a, flight; fug-o, Nom. fug-u-m, 4 yoke; fid-z, Nom. fid-i-s, faith; reg-i, rule thou; reg-i-s, you rule; reg-o, I rule; reg-u-nt, they rule.
i,	i,	in a few nouns: av-i, Nom. av-i-s, bird; avc-i, Nom. arc-i-s, avc-s, arc-s, etadel.
u,	u,	in nouns: 7 ac-u, Nom. ac-u-s, needle.
an,	on, ōn, en, in,	denoting either the act or the agent; usperq- on, Nom. aspergös (G. inis), sprinkling; qer- on, qerös (G. onis), a carrier; peet-en (G. inis) u comb.
ant,9	ent, unt,	in present participles: 10 audient-s, 10 audiens hearing; ab-ex-ent-s, ab-sèns, absent; amā-ent-s, amāns, loving.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Most suffixes appear to be of pronominal origin, i. e., from pronominal stems or roots, but, according to Bopp, Corssen, and others, a few may be of verbal origin. Thus in several suffixes beginning with b-seen in her, bills, bulum, etc.—Corssen recognizes the root bhar = fer in fer-\(\delta\), 'to bear'; in some beginning with t-seen in ter, tor, t\(\delta\)rus, etc.—the root tar, 'to accomplish'; in some beginning with c-seen in cer, culum, crum, etc.—the root kar = eer, cre in cre-\(\delta\), 'to make.' For a discussion of the subject, see Bopp, III., pp. 186-201; Corssen, I., p. 567; II., pp. 40, 68; Schleicher, p. 443.

<sup>2</sup> Column I, shows the suffix in its supposed original form, while column II, shows the various forms which the suffix has assumed in Latin.

<sup>2</sup> Originally long in Latin in feminine forms; see 21, 2, 1).

4 Observe that these suffixes form stems, not cases. Sometimes the Nominative Singular is in form identical with the stem; but in most cases, the Nominative is formed from the stem by adding the Nominative suffix, as s in fidē-s, m in jugu-m for jugo-m (o weakened to u, 22, 2).

Observe that the Present stem takes the several forms, reg-e, reg-i, reg-o, reg-u; but see page 118, foot note 5.

Often thus dropped; sometimes changed to e, ë: mari, mare, sen; caedi, caede, caedē-s, slaughter.

Also in adjectives, in union with i making ui: ten-ui-s, thin.

<sup>8</sup> N dropped; see 36, 5, 3).

This is the base of several compound suffixes: ent o. ent-id, ent-io-Nom. ent-um, ent-ia, and ent-ium; flu-ent-um, stream; sapi-ent-ia, wisdom; sil-ent-ium, silence.

16 Also in a few adjectives and nouns: frequent-s, frequent, partient-s, parëns. Here s is the Nominative ending.

#### PRIMARY SUFFIXES.—(Continued.)

I.	11.	Examples.
аз,	os, us, es,¹ ēs, ōr, ur,	gen-os, gen-us,² birth; corp-us,³ body; nūb-ēs, eloud; rōb-ur,³ strength; sop-or (21, 2), sleep.
$ja^4 = ya,$	iă,5 io, iē,	iă and io in adjectives; iē in nouns: ex-im-iă, ex-im-io, Nom. ex-im-iu-s, ex-im-ia, ex-im- iu-m, select; fac-iē, Nom. fac-iē-s, appear- ance.
$\mathbf{ja}^6 = ya,$	e, i, iŏ, iu,	in verbs: cap-e, take thou; cap-e-re, to take; cap-i-s, you take; cap-i-mus, we take; cap-i\overline{o}, I take; cap-iu-nt, they take.
jans <sup>1</sup> = yans,	iōs, iŏr, ius, jŏr, ŏr,	in comparatives: mag-iōs, mag-iōr, mā-jōr, Nom. mā-jor (21, 2), greater; min-or, min-or (21, 2), smaller; see 162, 165.
ka,	că, co,	rare: * pau-că, pau-co, pau-cus, a, um, small; lo-co, locus, place.
la,	lă, lo, li,	see ra.
ma,9	mă, mo,	for-ma, form; pri-mo, pri-mus, first; sup-mo, sum-mo (34, 3), sum-mus, highest; al-mo, al-mus, eherishing.

<sup>1</sup> This suffix seems to be used in forming the Latin Infinitive, in origin the Dative of a verbal noun; reg-es-e, reg-ere (31, 1), 'to rule'—lit., for ruling; e is the Dative ending (67, note); see Schleicher, p. 472. See also page \$1, foot-note 2.

<sup>2</sup> With variable vowel (57, 2); in early Latin o, in classical Latin u in Nominative Singular, e in other cases. We thus have in early Latin os in gen-os, and in classical Latin os in gen-us, and es changed to er (31, 1) in gen-er-is, gen-er-i, etc. Words of this class take no Nominative ending.

<sup>3</sup> With variable vowel—o, u. We thus have corp-us, corp-or-is, with s changed to r (31, 1). S final is also changed to r in  $r\bar{c}hur$ ; see 31, 2.

<sup>4</sup> Doubtless a pronominal stem. It is common as a secondary suffix (page 154, footnote 4): pater-io, pater-io, Nom. pater-ius, paternal; victor-ia, victory; lūxur-ia, luxur-iēs, luxury; see 325.

<sup>5</sup> Originally long in Latin, see 21, 2, 1).

6 Probably the verbal root ja, identical with i in ire, to go. So explained by Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 290-295. Ja was also used as a secondary suffix, appended to the stems of nouns and adjectives, in forming denominative verbs; see 335, foot-note.

<sup>7</sup> This suffix is generally secondary: alt-ior, alt-ius, higher; sapient-ior, wiser; see 162.

8 It seems to appear without its final vowel in some nouns in x: ape-c-s, apex, point, top. It is common as a secondary suffix: cīvi-co, cīvi-cus, civie (330); and is also used in compound suffixes, as cu-lo, ci-no, ti-co: flös-cu-lus, a small flower; vāti-ci-nus, prophetic. See Schleicher, p. 478; Corssen, II., pp. 205, 306, 307.

<sup>8</sup> This is also an element in ti-mã, ti-mo, si-mã, si-mo, is-si-mã, is-si-mo: op-ti-

mus, a, um, best; alt-is-si-mus, highest.

## TRIMARY SUFFIXES .- (Continued.)

1.	11.	Examples.
man,1	men,² min,² mōn,	denoting the means of the action, sometimes the Act itself, or its result: tegi-men, or teg-men, <sup>2</sup> a covering; nō-men, <sup>3</sup> name; certā-men, contest; s r-mōn, ser-mō, <sup>4</sup> discourse.
na, <sup>5</sup>	na, no,	<ol> <li>in adjectives with the force of perfect participles: <sup>5</sup> plėnå, plè-no, plè-nus, a, um, filled, full; rèq-no, règ-num, kingdom, that which is ruled.</li> <li>in nouns and adjectives with various mean ings: <sup>6</sup> sop-no, som-no (33, 3, note), som-nus, sleep.</li> </ol>
ni,	ni, <sup>7</sup>	iy-ni, iy-nis, fire; pā-ni, pā-nis, bread.
nu,	nu,	very rare: ma-nu, ma-nus, hand.
ra, <sup>8</sup> la,	ră, ro, lă, lo, li,	ag-ro (agrus), ager, field; sac-ro (sac-rus), sacer, sac-ra, sac-rum, sacred; sed-lå, sel-la (34, 2), seat; candè-la, a light; tè-lo, tè-lum, weapon; doci-li, doci-lis, docile.
ta,9	tă, to, să, so,	<ol> <li>in perfect participles: 10 amā-tō, amā-tus, a, um, loved; plaud-to, plau-so (35, 3), plau-sus, applauded; cōnā-tus, having tried; prān-sus, having taken lunch.</li> <li>in a few adjectives: ser-to, sex-tus, sixth.</li> </ol>

- <sup>1</sup> This is an element in men-to, mön-i t, and mön-io: nötri-men-tum, nutriment; queri-mön-ia, complaint; testi-min-ium (secondary suffix), testimony.
- With variable vowel (57, 2). The suffix man is weakened to men in the Nominative Singular, and to min in the other cases.
  - 3 For gno-men, 'name,' the means by which one is known.
  - 4 N is dropped; see 36, 5, 3).
  - <sup>6</sup> Nearly equivalent to ta. In some languages it forms passive participles like ta.
- Often secondary: pater-no, pater-nus, paternal; sometimes preceded by ā, ī, or ē: font-ā-nus, of a fountain; can-ī-nus, canine; ali-i-nus, belonging to another; see 327, 329, and 330.
- <sup>7</sup> As ta and na are closely related in meaning and use, so are ti and ni. They are sometimes united in the same suffix: ti- $\bar{n}$ -ni (326).
- \* Ra and la are only different forms of the same suffix. In Latin and Greek this suffix often forms verbal adjectives which sometimes pass into nouns:  $gn\bar{a} \cdot nus$ , 'knowing,' from  $gn\bar{a} \cdot \ln n\bar{o} \cdot sc\bar{o}$ , 'to know';  $\delta\bar{\omega} \cdot \rho o\nu$ , 'gift,' 'something given,' from  $\delta o$  in  $\delta i\delta \omega \mu \iota$ , 'to give.'
- § In the form of ti it is the first element in [ti-mus, a, um: op-ti-mus, best; and the second element in is-si-mus, a, um: alt-is-si-mus, highest. In the form of  $t\bar{a}$ , it is the first element in  $t\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{i}$ , shortened to  $t\bar{i}t$ :  $c\bar{i}vi$ - $t\bar{i}s$  =  $c\bar{i}vi$ - $t\bar{i}t$ -s, state.
  - 10 Often becoming adjectives or nouns: al-to, al-tus high; nā-tus, son.

#### PRIMARY SUFFIXES.—(Continued.)

I.	II.	Examples.
tar,	ter, tŏr,	see tra.
ti,¹	ti,² si,	in verbal nouns: vēs-ti, vēs-tis, garment; met-ti, met-tis, messis (35, 3), reaping, harvest.
tu,	tŭ,³	in verbal nouns, including supines: sta-tu, sta- tus, standing; i-tu, i-tus, going; dic-tū (su- pine), in telling, to tell.
tar,4 tra,4	ter, tŏr, tro,	ter 5 and tor denoting AGENCY; tro, MEANS: pa-ter, father; mā-ter, mother; vīc-tor, conqueror; audī-tor, hearer; arā-trum, plough.
vă,	vo, uo,	in nouns and adjectives: ar-vo, ar-vum, ploughed field; vac-uo, vac-uus, empty.

#### SECTION II.

#### DERIVATION OF WORDS.

#### FORMATION OF NOUNS BY SUFFIXES.

#### I. From the Stems of Other Nouns.

## 321. DIMINUTIVES generally end in-

lus, la, lum; ulus, ula, ulum; culus, cula, culum:6

<sup>2</sup> I often disappears: men-ti, men-tis, men-ts, mens (36, 2), mind.

5 Ter is used in names denoting family relationship, originally AGENCY: pa-ter, lit., protector, from the root pa, to protect.

<sup>1</sup> Ti is the first element in ti- $\tilde{a}$ , ti- $\tilde{o}$ , ti- $\tilde{o}$ , ti- $\tilde{o}$ -ni, ti- $\tilde{o}$ n (i dropped):  $j\bar{u}\epsilon ti$ -tia, justice; servi-tio, servi-tium, service;  $d\bar{u}ri$ -ti $\tilde{e}$ ,  $d\bar{u}ri$ -ti $\tilde{e}$ , hardness; sta-ti $\tilde{o}$ n, sta-ti $\tilde{o}$  (n dropped), station.

<sup>3</sup> Tu is the first element in the suffixes, tu-d, tu-o; tū-ti, tūt, and tū-don: sta-tua, statue; mor-tuus, dead; serri-tūti, serri-tūt (serri-tūts), serri-tūs, servitude; turpi-tūdon, turpi-tūdo (n dropped), turpitude.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Perhaps of verbal origin (320, foot-note 1). This suffix seems to be the basis of several compound suffixes: t̄r-iā, tōr-io, tārā, tūro, trīc for tōr-i-c, etc.; see examples, 324, 326, 330.

<sup>6</sup> For the convenience of the learner the suffixes are given in the Nominative form, i. e., with the Nominative ending and the modified stem-vowel. Observe that the stem suffix in lu-s and lu-m is lo. The endings, ulus, ula, ulum, were developed irregularly after the analogy of u-lus, u-la, u-lum in such words as hortu-lus, virgu-lus, oppidu-lum, where the u is the modified stem-vowel. Thus the u in rēg-u-lus and capit-u-lum is an irregularity introduced from the Diminutives of a and o stems. Lus, la, lum are formed from the suffix la or ra, often used in forming Primary Stems (320). Culus, cula, culum are compound suffixes in which the first part. cu, is formed from the suffix, originally ka, modified in Latiu to co, cu, seen in lo-co-s, locus, place; see 320, ka, foot-note.

filio-lus,	a little son,	from	fīlius,	son.
fīlio-la,	a little daughter,	**	fīlia,	daughter.
atrio-lum,	a small ha'l,	"	atriúm,	hall.
alveo-lus,	a small cavity,	44	alveus,	eavity.
hortu-lus,	a small garden,	**	hortus,	garden.
virgu-la,	a small branch,	44	virga,	branch.
oppidu-lum,	a small town,	**	oppidum,	town.
rēg-ulus,	a petty king,	44	rēx,	king.
capit-ulum,	a small head,	44	caput,	head.
flös-culus,	a small flower,	"	flős,	flower.
parti-eula,	a small part,	44	pars,	part.
mūnus-culum,	a small present,		mūnus,	present.

- 1. Lus, la, lum, are appended to a and o stems; ulus, ula, ulum, to Denial and Guttural stems; culus, cula, culum, to e, i, and u stems, and to Liquid and s stems; see examples.
- 2. Before lus, la, lum, the stem-vowels a and o take the form of o after e or i, and the form of u in other situations: filio-lus, filio-la for filid-la, hortu-lus for horto-lus.
- 3. Before culus, cula, culum, stems in u change u into i, and stems in on change o into u: versi-culus, 'a little verse,' from versus; homunculus, 'a small man,' from homŏ. Like nouns in on, a few other words form diminutives in un-culus, un-cula: av-unculus, 'maternal uncle,' from avus, 'grandfather.' 1
- 4. El·lus, el·la, el·lum, il·lus, il·la, il·lum,² are used when the stem of the primitive ends in ă or o, preceded by l, n, or r: occl·lus,² 'small eye,' from oculus; fābel·la, 'short fable,' from fābula; vīl·lum,² 'a small wine,' from vīnum.

Note.—The endings leus and ciō occur: ecu-leus,3 'a small horse,' from equus; homun-ciō, 'a small man,' from homō.

322. Patronymics, or names of Descent, generally end in—des, stem-suffix da, masculine; s for ds, stem-suffix d, feminine.

Tantali-des,	son of Tantalus;	Tantali-s,	danghter of Tantulus.
Thēsī-dēs,	son of Theseus;	Thēsēi-s,	daughter of Theseus.
Thestia-des,	son of Thestius;	Thestiā-s,	daughter of Thestius.

Note.—The suffix  $n\tilde{e}$ , preceded by  $\tilde{r}$  or  $\tilde{e}$ , is sometimes used in forming feminine Patronymies:  $Nept\tilde{u}n\tilde{r}-n\tilde{e}$ , daughter of Neptune;  $\tilde{A}crisi\tilde{e}-n\tilde{e}$ , daughter of Acrisius.

<sup>1</sup> Nube-cula, plebe-cula, and rulpe-cula are formed as if from e-stems.

<sup>2</sup> The syllables el and il do not belong to the ending, but are produced by a slight change in the stem. The quantity of the vowel e or i is therefore determined by the primitive; thus, oculus, oculu-lus = ocul-lus = ocel-lus; vinum, vinu-lum = vin-lum = vil-lum.

<sup>3</sup> Also written equuleus, but eculeus is the approved form.

<sup>4</sup> The vowel preceding the suffix is usually i, as in Tuntali-des, Tantali-s, modified from the stem-vowel o. Primitives in eus generally change eu to i or éi, as in Thési-des, Thésèi-s; and primitives in ius change stem-vowel o to d, as in Thestia-dès. Other nouns sometimes form Patronymics after the analogy of nouns in ius: Läertiadès son of Laertes. Achèis has Achèadès, masculine, and Achèis, feminine.

# 323. Designations of Place are often formed with the endings-

	ārlum,	ētum,	tum,	īie.1	
columb-ārium,	a dovecot,		from	columba,	dovc.
querc-5tum,	a forest of		"	quercus,	oak.
salīc-tum,	a thicket of	willows,	"	salīx,	willow.
ov-īle,	a sheepjold	,	"	ovis,	sheep.

- 1. Ārium designates the PLACE where anything is kept, a receptacle: cerārium, 'treasury,' from acs, money.
- 2. **\(\bar{\text{z}}\)tum, tum,** used with names of trees and plants, designate the PLACE where they flourish: \(olive{live}\)tum, 'an olive-grove,' from \(olive{live}\), 'olive-tree.'
- 3.  $\bar{\mathbf{M}}\mathbf{e}$ , used with names of animals, designates their stall or fold:  $\bar{b}ov\bar{\iota}le$ , 'stall for cattle,' from  $b\bar{o}s$ , stem  $b\bar{\jmath}v$ .
  - 4. Other Examples are-

Asstu-ārium, 'tidal bay,' from asstus, 'tide'; avi-ārium, 'aviary,' from avis, 'bird'; dōn-ārium, 'place for offerings,' from dōnum, 'gift'; pōm-ārium, 'orchard,' from pōmum, 'fruit'; aescul-ētum, 'forest of oaks,' from aesculus, 'oak'; pīn-ētum, 'pine-forest,' from pīnus, 'pine'; ros-ētum, 'rose-bed,' from rosa, 'rose'; vīn-ētum, 'vineyard,' from vīnum, 'vine'; virgul-tum, 'a thicket,' from virgula, 'bush'; capr-ēle, 'goat-stall,' from caper, 'goat.'

324. Derivatives are also formed with several other endings, especially with—

## ārius, iŏ, ium, itium, īna, imonium, itās, tūs, ātus.2

statu-ārius,	a statuary,	from	statua,	statue.
mūl-iŏ,	muleteer,	"	mūlus.	mulc.
sacerdot-ium,	pricsthood,	"	sacerdos,	priest.
serv-itium,	servitude,	и.	servus,	slave.
rēg-īna,	queen,	"	rēx,	king.
patr-imonium,	patrimony,	"	pater,	father.
cīv-itās,	citizenship,	"	cīvis,	citizen.
vir-tūs,	virtue,	"	vir,	man.
consul-ātus,	${\it consulship},$	44	cŏnsul,	consul.

- 1. Ārius and iŏ generally designate persons by their occupations.
- 2. Ium and itium denote office, condition, or collection: servitium, servitude, sometimes a collection of servants.

<sup>1</sup> Arium and ile are the endings of neuter a licetives used substantively (330). The vowels  $\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{i}$  were probably developed out of the stem-vowel of the primitive, but they were afterward treated as a part of the suffix. For an explanation of such vowels, see 330, foot-note. Many derivative endings were thus formed originally by the union of certain suffixes with the stem-vowel of the primitive; accordingly, when added to vowel stems, they generally take the place of the stem-vowel:  $columb-\bar{a}$ ,  $columb-\bar{a}rium$ ; querc-o, querc-elum.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>  $\bar{A}rius$  is identical in origin with the adjective ending  $\bar{a}rius$  (330), and  $\bar{a}tus$  with  $\bar{a}tus$  in participles. In each the initial  $\bar{a}$  was originally the stem-wowel of the primitive,  $\bar{I}na$  is the same formation as the adjective ending  $\bar{t}nus$  (330). On i-tium, i- $m\bar{o}nium$ , i- $t\bar{a}s$ , and  $t\bar{u}s$ , see ti, ta, tu, man,  $m\bar{o}n$ , with foot-notes, 320; remember that the initial  $\bar{t}$  was developed from the stem-wowel of the primitive.

NOUNS. 161

- Ina and imonium are used with some variety of signification; see examples under 7 below.
- 4. Itās and tūs designate some CHARACTERISTIC or CONDITION: hērēd-i-tās, 'heirship,' from hērēs, 'heir'; virtūs, 'manliness,' 'virtue,' from vir.
- Ātus denotes rank, office, collection: consulatus, 'consulship,' from consul; senatus, 'senate,' 'collection of old men,' from sener.
  - 6. For Patrial of Gentile Nouns, see 331, note 1.

Note.—The endings  $\bar{a}g\bar{b}$ ,  $\bar{i}g\bar{b}$ , and  $\bar{u}g\bar{b}^{-1}$  also occur:  $v(r\cdot\bar{a}g\bar{b})$ , theroic maiden, from vir, thero';  $ferr\cdot\bar{u}g\bar{b}$ , time-rust, from ferrum, time.

### 7. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Libr-ārius, 'transcriber of books,' from liber, 'book'; līgn-ārius, 'joiner,' from līgnum, 'wood'; quadrīg-ārius, 'driver of a four-horse chariot,' from quadrīga, 'four-horse chariot'; arbitr-ium, 'decision,' from arbiter, 'arbiter'; conjug-ium, 'wedlock,' from cunjumx, 'sponse'; magis-t-r-ium, 'presidency,' from magis-ter, 'president'; ōs-tium, 'door,' from ōs, 'mouth'; gall-īna, 'hen,' from gallus, 'cock'; dōctr-īna, for dōctōr-īna, 'doctrine,' from dōctor, 'learned man,' 'doctor'; mātr-imōnium, 'matrimony,' from māter, 'mother'; aedil-itās, 'office of edile,' from aedilis, 'edile'; auctōr-itās, 'authority,' from auctōr, 'founder,' 'author'; soure-tōs, 'old age,' from sener, 'old man'; tribūn-ātus,' 'office of tribune,' from tribūnus, 'tribune.'

### II. NOUNS FROM ADJECTIVES.

325. From Adjectives are formed various Abstract Nouns with the endings—

ia, itia, ta, tās, itās, tūs, ēdŏ, itūdŏ, imōnia,3

dīligent-ia,	diligence,	from	dīligēns,	diligent.
superb-ia,	haughtiness,		superbus,	haughty.
amīc-itia,	priendship,	"	amīcus,	friendly.
juven-ta,	gouth,	"	juvenis,	Loung.
līber-tās,	freedom,	"	līber,	frec.
bon-itās,	goodness,	"	bonus,	good.
pi-etās,4	picty,	"	pius,	pious.
juven-tūs,	youth,	44	juvenis,	young.
dule-ēdŏ,	sweetness,	44	dulcis,	sweet.
sõl-itūdő,	solitude,	"	sõlus,	alonc.
ācr-imōnia,	sharpness,	"	ãcer,	sharp.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These endings were formed, according to Corssen, by appending the suffix an to ag, the root of  $ag\bar{a}$ , to put in motion, make, do; see Corssen, 1., p. 577.

As if formed from a verb, tribūnō, āre, like equit-ātus, 'cavalry,' from equitō, āre, 'to ride,' from eques, 'a horseman.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> When appended to vowel stems, these endings take the place of the final vowel. Originally the initial i in i-tia, i-tis, i-tiddi, and i-minia formed no part of the suffix, but represented the stem-vowel of the primitive. On ia, tia, and ta, see ja, ti, and ta, 320; on i-tids and tis, see page 160, foot-note 2; on i-tiddi and i-minia, see tu and man, 320. The origin of i-dii, i-din is obscure.

<sup>4</sup> For pi-itas by dissimilation (26).

Note 1.—Instead of ia and itia, ies and ities occur: pauper, pauper-ies, poverty; dūrus, dūr-itia or dūr-ities, hardness.

Note 2.—Before tīs the stem of the adjective is sometimes slightly changed: facilis, facultās, facultās, facultās, difficultās, difficultās, difficultās, potens, potestās, power.

Note 3.—A few adjectives form abstracts with both *itās* and *itādō*: *firmus*, *firm-itās*, *firmtitād*, firmness. Polysyllabic adjectives in *tus* often suffer contraction before these endings: *honestās* for *honest-itās*, 'honesty,' from *konestus*; *sōllicitādō*, 'sollicitādō, 'rom *sōllicitītus*.

#### 1. Other Examples are—

Audāc-ia, 'boldness,' from audāx, 'bold'; jūst-itia, 'justiee,' from jūstus, 'just'; saev-itia, 'eruelty,' from saevus, 'cruel'; senec-ea, 'old age,' from senex, 'old'; aequāl-itās, 'equality,' from aequālis, 'equal'; eār-itās, 'dearness,' from cārus, 'dear'; anxi-etās, 'anxiety,' from anxius, 'anxious'; alt-itūdō, 'height,' from altus, 'high'; fort-itūdō, 'bravery,' from fortis, 'brave'; māgn-itūdō, 'greatness,' from māgnus, 'great.'

### III. Nouns from Verbs and from Roots.

326. From the Stems of Verbs and from Roots are formed numerous nouns with the suffixes—1

ter, tor,2 trīx, trum, tūra, tus, tiŏ, iŏ.3

pa-ter,	father,	from the root	pa,	to protect.
frā-ter,	brother,	44	bhra, fra,	to support.
amā-tor,	lover,	"	amā-re,	to love.
audī-tor,	hearer,	46	audī-re,	to hear.
dēfēn-sor,	defender,	"	dēfend-ere.	to defend.
vēnā-tor,	hunter,	"	vēnā-rī,	to hunt.
vēnā-trīx,	huntress,	44	"	"
gubernā-trīx,	directress,	44	gubernā-re,	to direct.
arā-trum,	plough,	44	arā-re,	to plough.
rōs-trum,4	beak.	44	rōd-ere,	to gnaw.
pie-tor,	painter,	"	ping-ere,	to paint.
pie-tūra,	painting,	44	ping-cre,	io pitint.
ū-sūra, <sup>5</sup>	using,	"	ūt-ī,	to use.
audī-tus,	hearing,	44	audī-re,	to hear.
vī-sus,5	sight,	44	vid-ēre,	to see.
audī-tiŏ,	hearing,	"	audī-re,	to hear.
moni-tiŏ,6	advising,	44	monē-re,	to advise.
vī-siŏ, <sup>5</sup>	seeing,	"	vid-ēre,	to sec.
leg-iŏ,	a selecting,	44	leg-ere,	to selcet.
occīd-iŏ,	a slaying,	"	occid-ere,	to slay.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These endings appear to be true suffixes, as they do not contain the stem-vowel of the primitive.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> For the phonetic change by which t in tor, twra, etc. unites with a preceding d or t and produces ss or s, as in defend-tor, defensor, see 35, 3, 2).

<sup>3</sup> On ter, tor, trīx, and tūra, see tar, tra; on tus and tiö, see tu and ti; and on ič, see ja, 320.

<sup>4</sup> For rod-trum; see 35, 3, 1).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> For ūt-tūra, rid-tus, rid-tio; see 35 3, 2).

<sup>6</sup> From stem moni, seen in moni tum

NOUNS. 163

- 1. Ter, tor, and trix designate the AGENT OF DOER; trum, the MEANS of the action; and tūra, tus, tiŏ, and iŏ, the ACT itself; see examples. But nouns in tus and iŏ sometimes become concrete, and denote the result of the action: quaes-tus, 'gain,' from quaes-ere, 'to gain'; leg-iŏ, 'a selecting' and then 'a legion' (the men selected), from leg-cre, 'to select'; cx-crei-tus, 'exercise,' 'drill,' and then 'an army' (a collection of trained men), from exercē-re, 'to exercise.'
- 2. **Us**, a, ŏ¹ sometimes designate the agent of the action: coqn-us = cequus, cook, from coqu-ere, to cook;  $ser\bar{\imath}b$ -a, writer, from  $ser\bar{\imath}b$ -ere; err-ŏ, wanderer, from err-āre.

Note 1.—Tor, trīx, tūra, and tus are sometimes added to noun stems with or without change: viā-tor, 'traveler,' from via, 'way'; senā-tor, 'senator,' from senec (Genitive senis, stem sen), 'old man'; jāni-tor, 'janitor,' and jāni-trīx, 'janitrix,' from jānua, 'gate'; lītterā-tāra, 'writing,' from līttera, 'letter'; cōnsul-ā-tus, 'consulship,' from cōnsul, 'consul.'

Note 2.—For nouns in io from the stems of other nouns, see 324, with 1.

#### 3. Other Examples are-

Accūsū-tor, 'aceuser,' from accūsū-re, 'to aceuse'; cūrū-tor, 'keeper,' from cūrū-re, 'to take eare of'; da-tor, 'giver,' from da-re, 'to give'; vīc-tor, 'victor,' from vine-cre,² 'to eonquer'; inven-trīx, 'a female discoverer,' from inven-īre, 'to discover'; mōnstrum = mon-es-trum,² 'prodigy,' from mon-ēre, 'to admonish'; rās-trum, 'rake,² from rād-ere, 'to rake,' 'serape'; armā-tūra, 'arming,' 'equipment,' from armā-re, 'to arm'; nā-tūra, 'birth,' 'nature,' from nā-scī,⁴ 'to be born'; scrīp-tūra, for scrīp-tūra,5 'writing,' from scrīb-ere, 'to write'; āc-tus, for aq-tus,6 'driving,' 'act,' from aq-ere, 'to drive,' 'act'; āc-tiō, for aq-tūō, 'action,' from aq-ere, 'to act'; moni-tiō, 'act of admonishing,' from monī-re, 'to admonish'; mon-ūtus, 'admoniton,' from monē-re, 'to admonish'; opīu-īō, 'opinion,' from opīn-ārī, 'to think'; opt-iō, 'choice,' from opt-āre, 'to choose.'

327. From the Stems of Verbs and from Roots are formed nouns with the suffixes—

or, us, ēs, iēs, ium, en, men, mentum, mōnia, mōnium, bulum, culum, brum, cum, num.8

<sup>1</sup> O and d, the stems of us and a, are only different forms of the suffix a; and in, the stem of d, ônis, is from the suffix an; see 320.

<sup>2</sup> Root ric.

<sup>3</sup> With the compound suffix es-trum, from as-tra; see as and tra, 320.

<sup>4</sup> Root nā.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See 33, 1,

<sup>6</sup> Observe change in quantity: ag-ere, āc-tus; see Gellius, IX., 6.

<sup>7</sup> On the forms bulum, brum, culum, crum, see 35, 2, foot-note 3.

<sup>\*</sup> On or (for os), us, and ēs, see as; on ies and ium, see ja; on en, see an; on men, mentum, mēnia, and mēnium, see man; on num, see na—all in 320; on bulum, brum. culum, crum, see Corssen, 11., p. 40.

am-or,	love,	from	am-āre,	to love.
tim-or,	fear,	"	tim-ēre,	to fear.
gen-us,	birth,	44	gen in gign-ere,	to bear.
frigus,	cold,	"	frīg-ere,1	to be cold.
sēd-ēs,	seat,	"	sed-ere,2	to sit.
fac-ies,	make, face,	"	fac-ere,	to make,
gaud-ium,	joy,	"	gaud-ēre,	to rejoice.
stud-ium,	zeal, study,	**	stud-ēre,	to be zealous.
pect-en,	$a\ comb$ ,	"	pect-ere,	to comb.
flū-men,	a stream,	"	flu-ere,	to flow.
örnā-mentum,	ornament,	"	ōrnā-re,	to adorn.
queri-mōnia, ´	complaint,	"	querī,	to complain.
ali-mõnium,	nourishment,	"	ale-re,	to nourish.
vocā-bulum,	appellation,	"	vocā-re,	to eall.
vehi-culum,	vehicle,	"	vehe-re,	to earry.
dēlū-brum,	shrine,	44	dēlu-ere,	to cleanse.
simulā-crum,	image,	44	simulā-re,	to represent.
rēg-num,	reign,	"	reg-ere,	to rule.

- 1. Or, us, ēs, iēs, and ium generally designate the action or STATE denoted by the verb, but ēs, iēs, and ium sometimes designate the RESELT of the action: aedificium, 'edifice,' from aedific-āre, 'to build.'
- 2. Men, mentum, monia, monium, and num generally designate the MEANS of the action, or its involuntary Subject, sometimes the act itself, or its result: flā-men, 'a stream,' 'something which flows,' from flu-ere; ag-men, 'an army in motion,' from ag-ere.

Note.—The stem or root is sometimes shortened or changed:  $m\bar{o}$ -mentum, 'moving force,' from mov-ere.

3. Bulum, culum, brum, and crum designate the instrument or the rlace of the action: vehi-culum, 'vehicle' (instrument of the action), from vehe-re; sta-bulum, 'stall' (place of the action), from stā-re.

Note.—The vowel of the stem is sometimes changed: sepul-crum, 'sepulchre,' from sepel-īre, 'to bury'; see 24, 3.

4. In culum, c is dropped after c and g: vine-ulum, 'a bond,' from vine-īre; reg-ula, 'rule,' from reg-ere.

Note.— $D\tilde{o}$ , la,  $\tilde{a}g\tilde{o}$ ,  $\tilde{i}g\tilde{o}$ ,  $^3$  and a few other endings also occur:  $torp\tilde{e}$ - $d\tilde{o}$ , 'numbness,' from  $torp\tilde{e}$ -re, 'to be numb';  $cup\tilde{i}$ - $d\tilde{o}$ , 'desire,' from cupe-re, 'to desire';  $cand\tilde{e}$ -la, 'candle,' from  $cund\tilde{e}$ -re, 'to shine'; ror- $\tilde{a}g\tilde{o}$ , 'whirlpool,' from vor- $\tilde{a}re$ , 'to swallow up'; vert- $\tilde{i}g\tilde{o}$ , 'a turn,' from vert-ere, 'to turn.'

#### 5. Other Examples are—

Splend-or, 'brightness,' from splend-ère, 'to be bright'; op-us, 'work,' from the root op for ap, 'work'; dec-us, 'ornament,' from root dec, in dec-et,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In several of these examples the noun is not strictly derived from the verb, but both noun and verb are formed from one common root, as frig-us and frig-ere from the root frig.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Sed-ēre and sēd-ēs show a variable root-vowel-e, ē; see 20, note 2.

<sup>3</sup> See Corssen, I., p. 577; H., pp. 302, 303.

'it is becoming'; nūb-īs, 'eloud,' from the root nūb in nūb-ere, 'to veil'; spec-ies, 'look,' from spec-ere, 'to look'; effug-ium, 'escape,' from effug-ere, 'to escape'; imper-ium, 'eommand,' from imper-tre, 'to command'; eertamen,' contest,' from eertā-re, 'to contend'; docu-mentum,' lesson,' 'document,' from dve-re, 'to teach'; nūtrī-mentum, 'nourishment,' from nūtrī-re, 'to nourish'; pā-hulum, 'fodder,' from the root pā in pā-secre, 'to feed'; spectā-eulum, 'sight,' from spectā-re, 'to behold'; lū-crum, 'gain,' from lu-ere, 'to pay'; dō-num,' 'gilt,' from the root du in da-re, 'to give.'

#### FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES BY SUFFIXES.

### I. Adjectives from Nouns.

328. Fullness.—Adjectives denoting fullness, abundance, supply, generally end in—

	õsus, cõsus,	lēns, len	itus, tus. <sup>2</sup>	
anim-ōsus,	full of courage,	from	animus,	spirit, courage.
frūctu-ösns,	fruitful,		frūctus,	fruit.
belli-cosus,	wavlike,	44	bellum,	war.
pesti-lens,	pestilential,	44	pestis,	pest.
pesti-lentus,	" "	44	" " "	*
vīno-lentus,	full of wine,	"	vīnum,	winc.
fraudu-lentus,	irundulent.	"	fraus,	fraud.
ālā-tus,	winged.	66	āla,	wing.
turrī-tus,	turreted,	"	turris,	turret.
cornū-tus,	horned,		cornū,	horn.
jūs-tus,	just,	"	jūs,	right.

Note. — Before isus the stem-vowel is generally dropped, but u is retained: animo-osus, anim-osus, but fracta-isus.

#### 1. Other Examples are—

Ann-ōsus, 'full of years,' from annus, 'year'; lāxuri-ōsus, 'luxurious,' from lāxuria, 'luxury'; perīcal-ōsus, 'dangerous,' from perīculum, 'danger'; tenehr-ōsus and tenehri-ōsus, 'gloomy,' from tenehrue, 'gloom'; turhu-leutus, 'riotous,' from turba, 'riot'; barbā-tus, 'bearded,' from barba, 'beard'; aurī-tus, 'long eared,' from auris, 'ear'; onus-tus, 'burdened,' from onus, 'burden.'

# 329. Material.—Adjectives designating the material of which anything is made generally end in—

<sup>1</sup> With modified stem or root: dorê, docu; da, dê.

<sup>2</sup> On bans, see Schleicher, p. 404; Corssen, L., p. 62; H., p. 688. Cosus is from co and ballieus; thus from billum, 'war,' is formed lellieus, 'belonging to war'; and from billieus is formed bellieo-bans, b l'iechsin, 'warlike.' On link, lentus, see ra, la, 320. The vowel before l'ns, lentus—generally a, sometimes o or i—was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive, as in rino-lentus, pesti-links, pesti-lentus, but it was sometimes treated as a part of the suffix: ri-olentus, 'violent,' from ris, 'force.' Tus is identical with tas in the passive participle, and when added to vowel-stems is preceded by ā, ī, or ū: āll-tus, turri-tus, cornō-tus, like amā-tus, anāl-tus, acō-tus ('sharpen'). It may, however, be added to consonant-stems: jūs-tus.

### eus, nus, neus, āceus, icius.1

aur-eus,	golden,	$\mathbf{from}$	aurum,	gold.
argent-eus,	of silver,	"	argentum,	silver.
fāg-eus,	of beech,	"	fāgus,	a becch.
fāgi-nus,2	"	"	```	64
fāgi-neus,2	"	"	"	**
põpul-nus,3	of $poplar$ ,	44	põpulus,	a poplar.
popul-neus,3	v - 7.	64	* ***	- 1.
papýr-āceus,	of papyrus,	"	papyrus,	papyrus.
later-icius,	oj brick,	"	later,	brick.

Note.—These endings sometimes denote characteristic or possession: virgineus, 'belonging to a maiden.'

330. Characteristic.—Adjectives signifying belonging to, derived from, generally end in—

### cus, icus, ālis, īlis, ānus, īnus, āris, ārius, ius, ēnsis.4

cīvi-cus,	relating to a citizen,	from	cīvis,	citizen.
patr-ieus,	paternal,	"	pater,	father.
nātūr-ālis,	natural,		nātūra,	nature.
mort-ālis,	mortal,	44	mors,	death.
host-īlis,	hostile,	44	hostis,	enemy.
cīv-īlis,	relating to a citizen,	**	cīvis,	citizen.
oppid-ānus,	of the town,	44	oppidum,	town.
urb-ānus,	of the city,	44	urbs,	city.
mar-īnus,	marine,	44	mare,	sea.
equ-inus,	of, pertaining to a horse,	"	equus,	horse.
lūn-āris,	lunar,	"	lūna,	moon.
salūt-āris,	salutary,	"	salūs,	safety.
auxili-ārius,	auxiliary,	"	auxilium,	aid.
rēg-ius,	royal,	44	rēx,	king.
ōrātōr-ius,	of an orator,	44	ōrātor, <sup>5</sup>	orator.
for-ēnsis,	forensic,	44	forum,	forum.

<sup>1</sup> On eus, stem co, see Corssen, II., pp. 342-346; Bopp, III., p. 429; on nus, see na. 320. Neus adds eus to no, seen in nus; āceus adds eus to āc, seen in āx (333, foot-note 2); and ic-ius adds ius to ic or ico; see ja, 320, and icus, 339.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Stem-vowel changed to i before nus and neus.

<sup>3</sup> Stem-vowel dropped before nus and neus.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> But ora-tor is formed from ora-re by adding tor to the stem; see 326.

- 1. Ester or estris, 'timus, itimus, ticus, 'cinus, and a few other endings occur: terr-ester or terr-estris, 'terrestrial,' from terra, 'earth'; maritimus, 'maritimus, 'maritimus, 'from mare, 'sea'; lēg-itimus, 'lawful,' from lēx, lēgis, 'law'; rūs-ticus, 'rustie,' from rūs, 'country'; vāti-cinus, 'prophetie,' from rūts, 'prophet.'
  - 2. Other Examples are—

Domini-cus, 'of a master,' from dominus, 'master'; serv-īlis, 'slavish,' from servus, 'slave'; vir-īlis, 'manly,' from vir, 'man'; capit-ālis, 'of the head,' 'capital,' from caput, 'head'; rēg-ālis, 'kingly,' from rēx, 'king'; consul-āris, 'consular,' from consul, 'consul'; mīlit-āris, 'military,' from mīles, 'soldier'; agr-ārius, 'of or relating to land,' from ager, 'field'; argent-ārius, 'of silver,' from argentum, 'silver'; can-īnus, 'of a dog,' from canis, 'dog'; lup-īnus, 'of a wolf,' from lupus, 'wolf'; mont-ānus, 'of a mountain,' from mōns, 'mountain'; nor-ius, 'injurious,' from nora, 'injury'; pntr-ius, 'of a father,' from pater, 'father'; imperātōr-ius, 'of a commander,' from imperātor, 'commander.'

# 331. Adjectives from proper nouns generally end in— ānus, jānus, īnus; jus, jacus, icus; ēnsis, jēnsis; ās, aeus, ēus.<sup>3</sup>

Sull-ānus,	of Sulla,	from	Sulla,	Sulla.
Rom-anus,	Roman,	"	Rōma,	Rome.
Mari-anus,	of Marius,	44	Marius,	Marius.
Ciceron-ianus,	Ciceronian,	44	Cicerŏ,	Cicero.
Lat-īnus,2	Latin,	44	Latium,	Latium.
Plaut-īnus,	of Plantus,	4.6	Plautus,	Plantus.
Corinth-ius,	Corinthian,	44	Corinthus,	Covinth.
Corinth-jacus,	44	44	44	44
Britann-icus,	British,	44	Britannus,	a Briton.
Cann-ēnsis,	of Cannac,	44	Cannae,	Cannac.
Athen-iensis,	Athenian,	"	Athēnae,	Athens.
Pīdēn-ās,	of Fidence.	**	Fidēnae,	Fidenue.
Smyrn-aeus,	Singracan,	**	Smyrna,	Sugrna.
Pythagor-eus,	Pythagorean,	44	Pythagorās,	Puthagoras.

 Anus and iānus are the endings generally used in derivatives from Names of Persons; but others also occur.

Note 1.—Many of these adjectives from names of places are also used substantively as Patrial or Gentile Nouns to designate the citizens of the place: Corinthii, the Corinthians; Atheniënsës, the Athenians.

Note 2.—The Roman Gentes or clans were all designated by adjectives in ins, as gens Cornelia, gens Júlia.

- <sup>1</sup> The ending ester or estris may be formed by adding ter or tris to es from the suffix as (320); but see Corssen, 11., p. 549.
  - 2 On ti-mus, i-li-mus, and ti-cus, see ta, ma, ca, 320.
- When appended to vowel stems, these endings take the place of the stem-vowel: Sall-ānus. In fact, ānus is formed by the union of the stem-vowel with the suffix. So in Mari-ānus, but in examples like this the i before ānus was finally treated as a part of the suffix, making iānus, as seen in Cicerān-iānus. Īnus in Lat-īnus contains io, from Lat-io, the stem of Latium.

Note 3.—An adjective in *ius*, used substantively, formed a part of the name of every distinguished Roman, and designated the  $g\tilde{\epsilon}ns$  to which he belonged; see *Roman Names*, 649.

### II. Adjectives from Adjectives.

332. DIMINUTIVES from other adjectives generally end like diminutive nouns (321) in—

### lus, ulus, culus,1

ēbrio-lus,	somewhat drunken,	from	ēbrius,	drunken.
aureo-lus,	golden,	"	aureus,	golden.
long-ulus,	rather long,	"	longus,	long.
pauper-culus,	rather poor,	"	pauper,	poor.

Note 1.—The endings ellus and illus also occur as in nouns (321, 4): nov-ellus, 'new,' from norus, 'new.'

Note 2.—Cu'us is sometimes added to comparatives:  $d\bar{u}rius$ -culus, 'somewhat hard,' from  $d\bar{u}rior$ ,  $d\bar{v}rius$ , 'harder,'

### III. Adjectives from Verbs and from Roots.

# 333. Verbal adjectives generally end in-

## bundus, cundus, dus; bilis, tilis, silis, lis; āx.2

mīrā-bundus,	wondering,	$\mathbf{from}$	mīrā-rī,	to wonder.
mori-bundus,	dying,	44	morī,	to die.
verē-cundus,	diffident,	64	verē-rī,	to j'ear.
cali-dus,	warm,	4.6	calē-re,	to be warm.
pavi-dus,	fearful,	"	pavē-re,	to fear.
amā-bilis,	worthy of love,	44	amā-re,	to love.
dūe-tilis,	ductile,	44	dūc-ere,	to lead.
flec-silis, <sup>3</sup> (flexilis,	flexible,	44	flect-ere,	to turn.
doci-lis,	$doci^{j}c$ ,	44	docē-re,	to teach.
pūgn-āx,	pu macious,	44	pūgnā-re,	to fight.
aud-āx,	dering,	"	audē-re,	to darc.

- 1. Bundus and cundus have nearly the force of the present participle; but bundus is somewhat more expressive than the participle: luctā-bundus, rejoicing greatly; and cundus generally denotes some characteristic rather than a single act or feeling: verā-cundus, diffident.
  - 2. Dus retains the simple meaning of the verb.
- 3. Bilis, tilis, silis, and lis denote capability, generally in a passive sense: anābilis, capable or worthy of being loved; sometimes in an active sense: terribilis, terrible, capable of producing terror.

<sup>1</sup> See p. 158, foot-note 6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Eundus is explained by Corssen and others as formed by appending undus, endus, the Gerundive suffix to bu=fu, as seen in fui; cundus, by adding the same suffix to vo (ku, 320); see Corssen, II., pp. 310–312. On dus, see Corssen, II., pp. 302, 303; on bu is, see va, la, 320; and on bilis, 320, foot-note 1; also Corssen, I, pp. 166–169; on tilis and si'is, Corssen, II., pp. 41, 326. The ending  $\bar{u}x = \bar{u} \cdot c \cdot s$  is for  $\bar{u} \cdot c \cdot c \cdot s$  in which  $\bar{u}$  was originally the stem-vowel of an  $\bar{u} \cdot rerb$ : thus  $p\bar{u}qn \cdot \bar{u} \cdot c \cdot s \cdot s$  becomes  $p\bar{u}qn\bar{u} \cdot c s$ ,  $p\bar{u}qn\bar{u} \cdot c s$ .

<sup>\*</sup> Flec-silis = flcct-tilis; see 35, 3, 2).

VERBS. 169

- 4. Ax denotes inclination, generally a faulty one: loquax, loquacious.
- 5. Cus, īcus, ūcus, vus, uus, īvus, tīvus, tīcius, ius, and ulus 1 also occur:

Medi-cus, 'healing,' 'medical,' from medē-rī, 'to heal'; am-īcus, 'friend-ly,' from am-āre, 'to love'; cad-ūcus, 'falling,' 'inclined to fall,' from cad-cre, 'to fall'; rad-cus, 'safe,' from root sal, 'whole,' 'sound'; noc-uus and noc-īvus, 'hurtful,' from noc-īre, 'to hurt'; cap-tīvus, 'captive,' from cap-cre, 'to take'; fictīcius, for fig-tīcius, 'feigned,' from fig, the root of fing-ere, 'to form,' 'fashion,' 'feign'; exim-īus, 'select,' 'choice,' from exim-ere, 'to select out'; cred-ulus, 'credulous,' from crèd-cre, 'to believe.'

### 6, Other Examples are-

Lūdi-bundus, 'sportive,' 'playful,' from lūde-re, 'to play'; rīdi-bundus, 'laughing,' from rīdē-re, 'to laugh'; fū-eundus, 'eloquent,' from fū-rī, 'to speak'; jū-eundus, for juv-cundus, 'pleasant,' from juv-āre, 'to aid,' 'delight'; avi-dus, 'greedy,' from avē-re, 'to long for'; eupi-dus, 'desirous,' from eupe-re, 'to desire'; timi-dus, 'timid,' from timē-re, 'to fear'; faci-lis, 'easy,' 'eapable of being done,' from face-re, 'to do'; nūbi-lis, 'marriage-able,' from nūbe-re, 'to marry'; ūti-lis, 'useful,' from ūtī, 'to use'; crēdibilis, 'eredible,' from crēde-re, 'to believe'; terri-bilis, 'terrible,' from terrē-re, 'to terrify'; laudā-bilis, 'praiseworthy,' from laudā-re, 'to praise'; fertile,' from fcr-re, 'to bear'; cap-āx, 'capacious,' from etp-cre, 'to take'; ten-āx, 'tenacious,' from ten-ēre, 'to hold.'

### IV. Adjectives from Adverds and Prepositions.

334. A few adjectives are formed from adverbs and preposi-

crās-tinus,	of to-morrow,	from	crās,	to-morrow.
contrā-rius,	contrary,	4.6	contrā,	aginst.
inter-nus,	internal,	"	inter,	among, within.
super-bus,	haughty,	"	super,	above.
super-nus,	upper,	"	11	

#### FORMATION OF VERBS BY SUFFIXES.

### I. VERBS FROM NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

335. Verbs formed from nouns and adjectives are called DENOMINATIVES. They end in—

Conj. I.	Conj. II.	Conj. III.	Cona, IV.		
ō, ā-re,	eō, ē-re,	uō, ue-re,3	iō, ī-re.4		

<sup>1</sup> Fus. uns, and i-vus are only different forms of the same suffix; uns was formed by vocalizing r in rus; i-rus, by adding rus to the stem-vowel i; noc-i-rus, as if from a verb, noc-ire = noc-ire. The other endings are composed of elements already explained.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> But adverbs and prepositions are in origin case-forms; see 304; 307, note 1,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Conjugation III. contains primitive verbs with a few derivatives.

<sup>4</sup> According to Curtius and others, the suffix which was added to the stems of nouns and adjectives to form verbs was originally ja, pronounced ya, probably identical with \(\hat{\alpha}\).

cūr-ō,	ā-re,	to care for,	$\mathbf{from}$	eūr-a,	eare.
fug-ō,	ā-re,	to put to flight,	44	fug-a,	flight.
pūgn-ő,	ā-re,	to fight,	"	pūgn-a,	battle.
bell-ō,	ā-re,	to carry on war,	"	bell-um,	war.
dōn-ō,	ā-re,	to give,	"	dōn-um,	gift.
firm-ö,	ā-re,	to make firm,	44	firm-us,	firm.
labor-ő,	ā-re,	to labor,	46	labor,	labor.
līber-ō,	ā-re,	to liberate,	"	līber,	free.
nōmin-ō,	ã-re,	to name,	"	nōmen,	name.
alb-eō,	ē-re,	to be white,	44	alb-us,	white.
clār-ō,	ā-re,	to make bright,	"	clār-us,	bright.
elār-eō,	ē-re,	to be bright,	66	"	ii.
flör-eö,	ē-re,	to bloom,	"	flös,	flower.
lūc-eō,	ē-re,	to shine,	64	lūx=lūc-s,	light.
met-uō,	ue-re,	to fear,	"	met-us,	fear.
stat-uō,	ue-re,	to place,	44	stat-us,	position.
fīn-iō,	ī-re,	to finish,	"	fīn-is,	end.
moll-īō,	î-re,	to soften,	"	moll-is,	soft.
vēst-iō,	ī-re,	to clothe,	"	vēst-is,	garment.
serv-iō,	ī-re,	to serve,	"	serv-us.	servant.
cūstōd-iō,	ī-re,	to guard,	"	cūstōs,	guardian.

Note 1.—Denominatives of the second conjugation are intransitive, but most of the others are transitive.

Note 2.—Derivatives, like other verbs, may of course be deponent: dominor, ārī, 'to domineer,' from dominus, 'master'; mīror, ārī, 'to wonder at,' from mīrus, 'wonderful'; partior, īrī, 'to part,' 'divide,' from pars, partis, 'part.'

#### 1. Other Examples are-

Culp-āre, 'to find fault,' from culp-a, 'fault'; glōri-ārī, 'to boast,' 'glory,' from glōri-a, 'glory'; nov-āre, 'to make new,' from novus, 'new'; rēgn-āre, 'to reign,' from rēgnum, 'royal power'; lev-āre, 'to lighten,' from levis, 'light'; honōr-āre, 'to honor,' from honor, 'honor'; laud-āre, 'to praise,' from laus = laud-s, 'praise'; saev-īre, 'to be fierce,' from saevus, 'fierce.'

the root of i-re, 'to go.' This suffix added to a, the original stem-vowel of most nouns and adjectives, formed  $a_{ij}a_{ij}$ , still preserved in the ending  $a_{ij}a_{ij}$ -mi in a large class of Sanskrit verbs. From this compound suffix aja are derived in Latin, in the first conjugation, (1)  $a\bar{o}$ , contracted to  $\bar{o}$ :  $c\bar{u}r$ - $\bar{o}$  =  $c\bar{u}r$ - $aj\bar{o}$  for  $c\bar{u}r$ - $a\bar{o}$  for  $c\bar{u}r$ -aja; (2)  $\bar{a}$ :  $c\bar{u}r$ - $\bar{a}$ -s. shortened to a in  $c\bar{\gamma}r$ -a-t for  $c\bar{u}r$ - $\bar{a}$ -t;—in the second conjugation, (1)  $e\bar{o}$ :  $l\bar{\gamma}c$ - $e\bar{o}$  for  $l\bar{u}e$ ejō for lūc-aja; (2) ē: lūc-ē-s, shortened to e in lūc-e-t for lūc-ē-t; and in the fourth conjugation, (1) io and iu: serv-io for serv-ijo for serv-aja, serv-iu-nt for serv-iju-nt for serv-aju-nt; and (2) i: serv-i-s, shortened to i in serv-i-t for serv-i-t; see Bopp, I., pp. 207-229; Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 292, 326-348; Schleicher, pp. 358-361. For an objection to this explanation of the a-verbs, see Corssen, II., pp. 793-736.—On final  $\bar{\sigma}$  of the first person, see 24.7, 1, foot-note 5.—The suffix ja, added to original i-stems, formed ija and gave rise to  $i\text{-}verbs: f\bar{\imath}ni\bar{\upsilon} = f\bar{\imath}n\cdot i\bar{\jmath}\bar{\upsilon} = f\bar{\imath}n\cdot ija$ ; and added to u-stems, it formed u-ju and gave rise to u-verbs: met- $u\bar{o} = met$ -u- $j\bar{o} = met$ -u-ja.—In general, a-stems give rise to a-verbs: cūr-a, cūr-ā-re; o-stems, sometimes to a-verbs, sometimes to e-verbs, and sometimes to i-verbs: firmus, stem firmo, firm-ā-re; albus, stem alb-o, alb-ē-re; servus, stem serv-o, serv-i-re; consonant stems, to a-rerbs, e-verbs, or i-verbs, after the analogy of vowel stems: labor for labor, labor-ā-re; flis, flor-ē-re for flos-ē-re (31, 1); custos, stem custod, custod-i-re.

VERBS.

171

### II. VERBS FROM VERBS.1

\ 336. Frequentatives or Intensives denote repeated, continued, or intense action. They are generally of the first conjugation, and are formed—

I. From the stem of the participle 2 in tus or sus:

```
from cano.
                                                                    to sing.3
cant-ō.
         are, to sing.
                                   from
                                          cantus
                                                                    to take.
          are, to snatch,
                                          captus
                                                           capió.
capt-ő.
                                                      "
                                     "
         are, to give often,
                                          datus
                                                           dō,
                                                                    to give.
dat-ő,
                                     41
                                                      "
                                                           habeo, to have.
habit-o, are, to inhabit,
                                          habitus
quass-o, are, to shake violently.
                                                           quatió, to shake.
                                          quassus
                                     44
                                                           terreo, to frighten,
territ-o, are, to frighten often,
                                          territus
```

II. From the present stem, by adding to and changing the preceding vowel to i, if not already in that form: 4

agi-tō,	āre,	to shake,	from	agó,	to more, lead.
clāmi-tō,	āre,	to shout often,	44	clāmō,	to shout.
rogi-tō,	āre,	to ask cagerly,	44	rogō,	to ask.
voci-tō,	āre,	to call often,	"	vocō,	to eall.
voli-tō,	āre,	to flit about,	44	volō,	to fly.

Note 1.—Frequentatives are sometimes formed from other frequentatives; \* cantitō, \*to sing often,\* from canti from canō; dielit, \* to say often,\* from dietō from dieō.

Note 2.—A few derivatives in esso and isso also occur. They are intensive in force, denoting earnest rather than repeated action, and are of the third conjugation: facio, facesso, 'to do earnestly'; incipio, incipioso, 'to begin eagerly.'

#### 1. Other Examples are-

Dietō, 'to say often,' from dīeō, 'to say'; spectō, 'to behold,' from speciō, 'to look at'; factitō, 'to do often,' from faciō, 'to do,' 'make'; imperitō, 'to command often,' from imperō, 'to command'; raptō, 'to snateh,' from rapiō, 'to seize.'

337. INCEPTIVES OF INCHOATIVES denote the beginning of the action. They are of the third conjugation, and end in sco:

Either directly or through the medium of nouns, adjectives, or participles.

Remember that the stem of the participle ends in o; thus cantus = canto-s. Observe, therefore, that the verb canto, '1 sing,' is in form like the stem of the participle. Canto was, however, originally produced by adding ja to canta, the original stem of cantus, making canta-ja, cantajō, cantajō,

4 The formation from the participle was doubtless the original method, but at length tō was regarded as the suffix, and was accordingly added to present stems, and as in many cases i preceded, the stem-vowel finally took this form before the suffix tō; see Corssen, II., p. 297.

Sometimes from frequentatives no longer in use: āctitā, 'to act often,' as if from āctā, not in use, from agō; scriptitō, 'to write often,' as if from scriptō, not in use, from scriptō.

<sup>2</sup> They are thus strictly denominatives (335). Intransitive verbs, though without the participle in tus or sus, may form frequentatives after the analogy of transitive verbs; cursô, ārc, 'to run about,' formed as if from cursus from currô, 'to run'; ventur, ārc, 'to come often,' formed as if from ventus, from ventu,' to come.'

gel-ā-scō,	to begin to freeze,	$_{ m from}$	gel-ō,	ā-re,	to freeze.
cal-ē - scō,	to become warm,	44	cal-eō,	ē-re,	to be warm.
rub-ē-seō,	to grow red,	"	rub-eō,	ē-re,	to be red.
vir-ē-scō,	to grow green,	"	vir-eō,	ē-re,	to be green.
trem-i-seō,	to begin to tremble,	"	trem-ō,	e-re,	to tremble.
obdorm-i-scō,	to fall asleep,	"	obdorm-iō,	ī-re,	to sleep.

338. Desideratives denote a *desire* to perform the action. They are of the fourth conjugation, and end in turio or surio:

```
par-turiō, îre, to strive to bring jorth, from pariō, to bring forth. ē-suriō, îre, to desire to cat, "edō, to cat."
```

339. DIMINUTIVES denote a feeble action.<sup>2</sup> They are of the first conjugation, and end in illō:

```
eant-illō, to sing feebly, from eantō, to sing.
cōnserīb-illō, to seribble, "cōnserībō, to write.
```

Note.-For the Derivation of Adverds, see 304.

### SECTION III.

#### COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

340. New words may be formed-

I. By the union of two or more words under one principal accent, without change of meaning:

Res publica, respublica, republic; agri cultura, agricultura, agriculture; jūris consultus, jūrisconsultus, lawyer, one skilled in the law; quem ad modum, quemadmodum, in what way—lit., to what measure.

Note.—These are compounds only in form. The separate words retain in a great measure their identity both in form and in meaning, and may in fact be written separately. Res problem is the approved form. Other examples of this class are: legis-later, law-giver; pater-familias, father of a family; senātās-cōnsultum, decree of the senate; heterus, thus far; saepe-numerō, often in number; bene-faciō, to do well, benefit; ma'e-dicō, to revile; satis-faciō, to satisfy, do enough for; animum-ad-vertō, anim-ad-vertō, to notice, turn the mind to.

II. By prefixing an indeclinable particle to an inflected word, generally with some change of meaning:

Ad-sum, to be present; de-pōnō, to lay down; re-pōnō, to replace; e-discō, to learn by heart; im-memor, unmindful; per-facilis, very easy; prō-cōnsul,

¹ These are the only desideratives in common use, but a few others occur: cēnā-turiō, 'to desire to dine,' from cinō, 'to dine'; čmp-turiō, 'to desire to purchase,' from emō, 'to purchase'; nūp-turiō, 'to desire to marry,' from nūbō, 'to marry.' They were probably formed originally through the medium of a verbal noun in tor or sor (326, foot-note 2): thus, cɨnō, cɨnā-tor, 'one who dines'; cēnā-tor-ī-re = cēnā-tur-ī-re (o changed to m), 'to desire to dine'; cɨmō, cɨmp-tor, 'a purchaser'; ēmp-tor-īre = ēmp-tur-ī-re, 'to desire to purchase.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Probably denominatives formed from verb-stems through diminutive verbal nouns.

NOUNS. 173

proconsul, one acting for a consul; inter-regnum, interregnum, an interval between two reigns.

III. By uniting two or more simple stems or roots, and adding appropriate inflectional suffixes when needed:

Igni-color, fire-colored; grandi-aero-s, grand-aerus, a, um, of great age; omni-potent-s, omnipotents, omnipotent; māgno-animo-s, māgnanimus, a, um, great-souled; tubi-cen, trumpeter; arti-fec-s, artifex, artificer; alio-quī, aliquis, any one.

- 1. In the first element of the compound observe-
- 1) That the stem-vowel generally takes the form of i: capro-corno-s, capri-cornus; tuba-cen, tubi-cen.
- 2) That consonant stems sometimes assume i: honor-i-fico-s, honorificus, a, um, honorable.
- 3) That the stem-vowel disappears before another vowel: magno-animus, magnanimus.
- 2. The stem-ending and the inflectional ending of the second element generally remain unchanged in the compound; see examples above. But observe—
- That they are sometimes slightly changed: acquo-nocti, acqui-noctio-m,<sup>3</sup> acquinoctium, equinox; multa-forma, multi-formis, with many forms.
- 2) That a verbal root or stem may be the second element in a compound noun or adjective: tubi-cen (cen=can, the root of  $can\bar{o}$ , to sing), trumpeter; teti-fer (fer, root of  $fer\bar{o}$ , to bear), death-bearing.

Note.—The words classed under II, and III, are regarded as real compounds, but those under III, best illustrate the distinctive characteristics of genuine compounds, as they are formed from compound stems and have a meaning which could not be expressed by the separate words. Thus, mignus animus means a great soul, but mignanimus means having a great soul.

341. In Compound Nouns, the first part is generally the stem of a noun or adjective, sometimes an adverb or preposition; and the second part is the stem of a noun, or a stem from a verbal root:

arti-fex,	artist,	$_{ m from}$	arti-fac	in	ars	and	faciō.
capri-cornus,	capricorn,	44	eapro-cornu	"	caper	"	cornũ.
aequi-noctium,	equinox.	"	aequo-nocti	"	aequus	**	nox.
nē-mŏ,	nobody,	"	ne-homon	"	nē	**	homŏ.
pro-nomen,	pronoun,	"	prō-nōmen	"	prō	"	nömen.

¹ Thus igni-color is formed by the union of two stems without inflectional suffix; but in grand-aevu-s, the suffix s is added to the stem grandaevo, compounded of grandiand aevo.

3 Ti, the stem-ending of nor, becomes  $ti\tilde{o}$ , to which is added the nominative-ending m,

<sup>2</sup> Literally, any other one.

<sup>4</sup> Class II. occupies a position intermediate between 1, and 111. Some compounds of particles with verbs, for example, have developed a meaning quite distinct from that denoted by the separate parts, while others have simply retained the ordinary meaning of those parts.

1. COMPOUNDS in ex, dex, fex, cen, cīda, and cola deserve special notice:

Remo-ex, remex,¹ oarsman; jūs-dex, jūdex,¹ judge; arti-fex, artist; tībia-cen, tībī-cen,² flute-player; homon-cīda, homi-cīda,³ manslayer; agri-cola,⁴ husbandman, one who tills the soil.

Note.—Ex (for ag-s) is from the root ag in agō, to drive, impel; dex (for dic-s), from dic in dicō, to make known; fex (for fac-s), from fac in faciō, to make; cen, from can in canō, to sing; cīda (for caed-a), from caed in caedō, to cut, slay; colu (for col-a), from col in colō, to cultivate.

342. In Compound Adjectives, the first part is generally the stem of a noun or adjective, sometimes an adverb or preposition; and the second is the stem of a noun or adjective, or a stem from a verbal root:

lēti-fer, death-bearing, from lēti-fer in lētum and ferō. māgn-animus, magnanimous, " māgno-animo " māgnus " animus. per-facilis, very casy, " per-facili " per " facilis.

1. Compounds in ceps, fer, ger, dicus, ficus, and volus deserve notice:

Parti-ceps, taking part; auri-fer, gold-hearing; armi-ger, earrying arms; fāti-dicus, predicting fate; mīri-ficus, causing wonder; bene-volus, well-wishing.

Note.—Ceps (for cap-s) is from the root cap in capiō, to take; fer, from fer in ferō, to bear; ger, from ger in gerō, to carry; diens (for die-o-s), from die in dieō, to make known; ficus (for fac-o-s), from fice in faciō, to make; volus (for vol-o-s), from rol in volō, to wish.

- 343. Compound Nouns and Adjectives are divided according to signification into three classes:
- I. DETERMINATIVE COMPOUNDS, in which the second part is qualified by the first:

Inter-rex, interrex; meri-dies,5 midday; bene-volus, well-wishing; permagnus, very great; in-dignus, unworthy.

II. OBJECTIVE COMPOUNDS, in which the second part is limited by the first as object:

*Prin-ceps*, taking the first place; belli-ger, waging war; jū-der, judge, one who dispenses (makes known) justice; homi-cīda, one who slays a man; agri-cola, one who tills the field. See other examples in **342**, 1.

III. Possessive Compounds, in origin mostly adjectives. They desig-

<sup>1</sup> O is dropped in rimer, and s in juder; see 27; 36, 3, note 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> A, weakened to i, unites with the preceding i, forming i.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> N dropped, and o weakened to i; see 36, 3, note 3.

<sup>4</sup> The stem-vowel o of agro is weakened to i. agri; see 22.

<sup>5</sup> From medius and dies.

VERBS. 175

nate qualities or attributes as possessed by some person or thing, and are often best rendered by supplying having or possessing:

Aeni-pēs, having bronze feet; <sup>1</sup> ccieri-pēs, swift-footed; āli-pēs, wing-footed, having wings for feet; māṇn-animus, having a great soul; ūn-animus, having one mind; long-acrus, of great age, having a long life.

344. Compound Verbs.—Verbs in general are compounded only with prepositions, originally adverbs: 2

Ab- $\epsilon\bar{o}$ , to go away;  $\epsilon x$ - $\epsilon\bar{o}$ , to go out;  $pr\bar{o}d$ - $e\bar{o}$ , to go forth; con- $roc\bar{o}$ , to call together;  $d\bar{e}$ - $cid\bar{o}$ , to fall off;  $pra\epsilon$ - $d\bar{e}\bar{o}$ , to foretell;  $r\epsilon$ - $d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$ , to lead back;  $r\epsilon$ - $fic\bar{o}$ , to repair, to make anew.

1. Facio and fio may also unite with verbal stems in e:

Cale-faciō, to make warm; cale-f $i\bar{\nu}$ , to be made warm, become warm;  $l\bar{a}be$ -faciō, to cause to totter; pate-faciō, to open, cause to be open.

2. Verbs are often united with other words in writing without strictly forming compounds:

Manŭ mitto or manŭ-mitto, to emancipate, let go from the hand; satis facio or satis-facio, to satisfy, do enough for; animum ad-verto or anim-adverto, to notice, turn the mind to.

3. Verbs in  $fic\bar{o}$  and  $fuct\bar{o}$ , like the following, are best explained not as compounds but as denominatives: 4

Ardi-fico, to build, from aedifex; ampli-fico,4 to enlarge; cale-facto, to make warm, from cale-factus.

- 4. Verbs compounded with prepositions often undergo certain vowel-changes:
- Short a and e generally become i: labeō, ad-hibeō; teneō, con-tineō. But a sometimes becomes e or u: carpō, dē-cerpō; calcō, con-culcō.
  - 2) Ae becomes i: caedo, in-cido.
  - Au generally becomes \(\bar{o}\) or \(\bar{u}\): plaud\(\bar{o}\), \(\epsilon x pl\bar{o}d\bar{o}\); claud\(\bar{o}\), in-cl\(\bar{u}d\bar{o}\).
- 5. Form and Meaning of Prepositions in Composition.—The following facts are added for reference:
- **A, ab, abs.**—1. Form:  $\bar{a}$  before m and r, and sometimes before f; abs before c, q, t, and, with the loss of b, also before  $p \circ ;$  au in au-fcro and au- $fuqi\delta$ ; ab before the other consonants, and before vowels.—2. Meaning: (1) 'away,' 'off':  $\bar{a}$ - $mitt\delta$ , to send away; abs- $cond\bar{o}$ , to hide away; as- $port\bar{o}$ ,

Observe the force of the compound. Across p's means a brazen foot, but acrit-pès means having brazen feet; see also 340, III., note.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The words thus formed are strictly compounds of rerbs with adverbs, as the original type of these compounds was formed before the adverb became a preposition.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Observe in these examples the strict adverbial use of the particles ab, ex, etc., away, out, etc. Prepositions, on the other hand, always denote relations, and are auxiliary to the case-endings; see 307, foot-note.

<sup>4</sup> In some of these the primitive is not found in actual use.

<sup>6</sup> As abs-pello, as-pello, to drive away.

to earry off; au- $fugi\bar{o}$ , to flee away; ab-sum, to be away; ab- $e\bar{o}$ , to go away; ab- $jici\bar{o}$  or ab- $ici\bar{o}$ , to throw away; (2) in adjectives, generally negative:  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{e}ns$ , without mind, frantic; ab-similis, unlike.

**Ad.**—1. Form: ad before vowels, and before b, d, f, h, j, m, n, q, and v, sometimes before g, l, r, and s, rarely before p and t; d assimilated before c, generally before p and t, and sometimes before g, l, q, r, and s; generally dropped before gn, sc, sp, and  $st.^2$ —2. Meanno: 'to,' 'toward,' 'to one's self'; 'on,' 'at,' 'near,' 'by'; 'besides':  $ad-div\bar{c}$ , to lead to;  $ac-cid\bar{c}$ , to fall to, happen;  $ad-move\bar{c}$ , to move toward;  $ac-cipi\bar{c}$ , to receive, take to one's self;  $ac-cing\bar{c}$ , to gird on;  $ad-latr\bar{c}$  or  $al-latr\bar{c}$ , to bark at; ad-sum, to be present  $ac-cing\bar{c}$ , to  $ac-cic\bar{c}$ , to stand near, to stand by;  $ad-disc\bar{c}$ , to learn besides.

Ante.—1. Form: unchanged except in anti-cipō, 'to take beforehand,' and in composition with stō: ante-stō or anti-stō, to stand before.—2. Meaning: 'before,' 'beforehand': ante-currō, to run before; ante-habeō, to prefer—lit., to have or hold before.

**Circum.**—1. Form: generally unchanged, but m is sometimes dropped in compounds of  $e\bar{v}$ , to go:  $circum-e\bar{v}$  or  $circu-e\bar{v}$ , to go around.—2. Meanino: 'around,' 'about':  $circum-mitt\bar{v}$ , to send around.

**Com.**<sup>3</sup>—1. Form: com before h, m, p; co before vowels,  $^4h$ , and gn,  $^5$  con or col before l; cor before r; con before the other consonants.—2. Meaning: (1) 'together,' 'with,' in various senses: com-bibō, to drink together; com-mittō, to let go together; co-cō, to go together; col-loquor, to talk with; con-fitgō, to contend with; (2) 'completely,' 'thoroughly': cōn-ficiō, to complete, make completely; con-citō, to rouse thoroughly; cōn-sūmō, to consume, take wholly; con-dōnsus, very dense.

**In.**—1. Form: n sometimes assimilated before l, often before  $m^{10}$  and r;

<sup>1</sup> See foot-note 1, p. 20.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Sometimes retained: ad-gnēscē or ā-gnēscē; ad-stō or a-stē.

<sup>3</sup> An earlier form for cum.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> A contraction often takes place: *co-agō*, *cō-gō*. Com is sometimes retained before *e* or *i*, and *co* or *con* is used before  $i = j\hbar$ : *com-edō*, *com-itor*, *co-iciō* or *con-iciō* = *con-iiciō* or *con-jiciō*; see foot-note 1, p. 20.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Co also appears in co-necto, co-niveo, co-nitor, and co-nubium,

<sup>6</sup> But ē-pōtō and ē-pōtus; ex-scendō or ē-scendō.

<sup>7</sup> S is sometimes dropped after x: exspectō or ex-pectō.

<sup>8</sup> C before f is not recommended; ef-ferō is better than ec-ferō.

<sup>9</sup> But ex-lin

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Im is the approved form before b, p, and m, especially in im-perātor, im-perō, and im-perium.

often changed to m before b and p; in other situations unchanged.—2. Meaning: 'in,' 'into,' 'on,' 'at,' 'against':  $in\text{-}col\bar{b}$ , to dwell in;  $in\text{-}c\bar{b}$ , to go into;  $im\text{-}miqr\bar{b}$ , to move into; in-nitor, to lean on; in-tueor, to look at;  $ir\text{-}ride\bar{b}$ , to laugh at;  $im\text{-}p\bar{u}gn\bar{b}$ , to fight against.

Inter.—1. Form: unchanged, except in intel-lego, to understand.—2. Meaning: 'between,' sometimes involving interruption,' 'together': interrenio, to come between, intervene; inter-dico, to forbid, interdict; internecto, to tie together.

**Ob.**—1. Form: b assimilated before c, f, q, and p; dropped in o-mitt; to omit, and in operio, to cover; in other situations generally unchanged.<sup>2</sup>—2. Meaning: (1) 'before,' 'in the way,' 'toward,' 'against,' especially of an obstruction or opposition: of-fero, to bring before; ob-sto, to stand in the way; oc-curro, to run toward, run to meet; op-pūquō, to attack, fight against; (2) 'down,' 'completely': oc-cūdō, to cut down, kill; op-primō, to press down, to overwhelm.

**Per.**—1. Form: generally unchanged, but r is sometimes assimilated before  $l_i$  and is dropped before j in compounds of  $j\bar{u}r\bar{v}_i$  as  $p\bar{v}_i$ - $jcr\bar{v}_i$ 4 to swear falsely.—2. Meaning: 'through,' 'thoroughly,' sometimes in a bad sense with the idea of breaking through, disregarling: per-lego, to read through; per-disco, to learn thoroughly; per-fidus, perfidious, breaking faith.

**Post.**—1. Form: unchanged, except in pō-mērium, the open space on either side of the city-wall, and pōs-merīdiānus, of the afternoon.—2. Meaning: 'after,' behind': post-habeō, to place after, have after, esteem less.

Prō, prōd.—1. Fora: prō is the usual form, both before vowels and before consonants; prōd, the original form, is retained in a few words before vowels.6—2. Meaning: 'forth,' 'forward,' 'before,' 'for': prōd-eō, to go forth or forward; prō-currō, to run forward; prō-pūgnō, to fight in front of, fight for; pro-hibeō, to hold aloof, i. e., out of one's reach, hence to prohibit; prō-mittō, to send forth, to hold out as a promise, to promise.

**Sub.**—1. Form: b assimilated before c, f, g, and p, and often before m and r; dropped before sp; in other situations unchanged. The form subs, shortened to sus, occurs in a few words: sus-cipio, sus-pendo.—2. Meaning: 'under,' 'down,' 'from under,' 'up'; 'in place of,' 'secretly'; 'somewhat,' 'slightly':' sub- $e\delta$ , to go under; sub-db-overline, to slip down; sub-da-overline of drom under, withdraw; sus-cipio, to undertake; sus-cibo, to lift up, arouse;

It is used in several compounds referring to death: inter-eô, to die; inter-ficiô, to kill.

<sup>2</sup> Obs seems to occur in a few words; obs-oliseo. os-tendo for obs-tendo (b dropped), though these words are sometimes otherwise explained; thus ob-solesco, as a compound of solesco from soleo.

<sup>3</sup> As per-lego, pel-lego; per-licio, pel-licio; but per is preferable.

<sup>4</sup> For per-juro.

I Post-meridianus is also used; pô-meridianus is not approved, though it occurs.

<sup>6</sup> As in prôd-eô, prôd-igô, prôd-igôs, and before e in the compound of sum: prôd-eô, prôd-eôl, etc.

<sup>7</sup> Mostly in adjectives: sub-absurdus, somewhat absurd; sub-dolus, somewhat erafty sub-impudéns, somewhat impudent; sub-invisus, somewhat odious.

sub- $stitu\bar{o}$ , to put in place of, to substitute; sub- $ripi\bar{o}$ , to take away secretly; sub- $ride\bar{o}$ , to smile, laugh slightly; sub-difficilis, somewhat difficult.

**Trāns.**—1. Form: it generally drops s before s, and it often drops ns before d, j, l, m, n; it is otherwise unchanged.—2. Meaning: 'across,' 'through,' 'completely':  $tr\bar{a}ns$ - $curr\bar{v}$ , to run across;  $tr\bar{u}$ - $d\bar{u}c\bar{v}$ , to lead across;  $tr\bar{u}n$ - $sili\bar{v}$ , to leap across;  $tr\bar{u}ns$ - $ig\bar{v}$ , to transact; to finish, do completely or thoroughly—lit, to drive through.

6. FORM AND MEANING OF THE INSEPARABLE PREPOSITIONS.—The following facts are added for reference:

Ambi, amb.2—1. Form: amb before vowels; ambi, am, or an,3 before consonants.—2. Meaning: 'around,' 'on both sides,' 'in two directions': amb-iô,4 to go round; amb-igō, to act in two ways, move in different directions, to hesitate; am-putô, to cut around or off; an-quirō, to search round.

**Dis, dī.**—1. Form: dis before, p, q, t, before s followed by a vowel, and, with assimilation, before f; but dir for dis before a vowel or h;  $d\bar{\imath}$  in most other situations; but both dis and  $d\bar{\imath}$  occur before j.5—2. Meaning: 'apart,' 'asunder,' 6 'between,' sometimes negative  $\bar{\imath}$  and sometimes intensive:  $distine\bar{\imath}$ , to hold apart;  $d\bar{\imath}-d\bar{\imath}\bar{\nu}e\bar{\imath}$ , to lead apart, divide;  $dif-fugi\bar{\imath}$ , to flee asunder, or in different directions;  $dir-im\bar{\imath}$ , to take in pieces, destroy;  $dis-senti\bar{\imath}$ , to think differently, dissent:  $d\bar{\imath}-j\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}di\bar{\imath}\bar{\nu}\bar{\sigma}$ , to judge between;  $dis-plice\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}$ , to displease, not to please; dif-ficilis, difficult, not easy;  $d\bar{\imath}-laud\bar{\imath}$ , to praise highly.

**In.**—1. Form: n dropped before gn; otherwise like the preposition in.
—2. Meaning: 'not,' 'un':  $\bar{i}$ - $gn\bar{o}sc\bar{o}$ , not to know, not to recollect, to pardon; im-memor, unmindful; in- $im\bar{i}cus$ , unfriendly.

**Por**, for **port**.\*—1. Form: r assimilated before l and s; in other situations, por.—2. Meaning: 'forth,' 'forward,' 'near': pol-liceor, to hold forth, offer, promise; pos-sideō, to possess; 'por-riyō, to hold out or forth, to offer.

Red, re.-1. Form: red before vowels, before h, and in red-dō; re in other situations.—2. Meaning: 'back,' 'again,' 'in return': 10 red-eō, to go back; re-ficiō, to repair, make again; red-amō, to love in return.

Sēd, 11 sē.—1. Form: sød before vowels; sø before consonants.—2. Meaning: 'apart,' 'aside': sø-cēdō, to go apart, secede; sē-pōnō, to put aside or apart. Note.—For the Composition of Adverbs, see 304, I., 2; 304, II., 1, note; 304, IV., note 2.

- <sup>1</sup> Or before i = j or ji; see foot-note 1, p. 20.
- <sup>2</sup> Compare  $amb\tilde{o}$ , both, and  $a\mu\phi i$ , around, on both sides.
- <sup>3</sup> An before c, q, f, and t.
- 4 For amb-eo.
- 5 Dis-jungo, dī-jūdico.
- <sup>6</sup> Both literally 'apart' in respect to place or position, and figuratively 'apart' in sentiment or opinion.
  - <sup>7</sup> Especially in adjectives: dis-par, unequal; dis-similis, unlike.
  - 8 Greek πορτί, προτί, πρός, to, toward, see Curtius, 381.
  - 9 To sit near and so to control.
  - 10 Sometimes negative, not, un-: re-sīgnō, to unseal; re-clūdō, to open,
  - 11 Probably an old ablative of suī and identical with sed, but.

# PART THIRD.

# SYNTAX.

# CHAPTER I.

# SYNTAX OF SENTENCES.

### I. CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

- 345. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.
- 346. A sentence is a combination of words expressing either a single thought or two or more thoughts.
  - 347. A SIMPLE SENTENCE expresses a single thought:

Deus mundum acdificavit, God made (built) the world. Cic.

 $\bf 348. \ \Lambda \ Complex \ Sentence \ expresses one leading thought with one or more dependent thoughts:$ 

Dônec eris felix, multés numerabis amices, so long as you shall be properous, you will number many friends. Ovid.

NOTE 1.—In this example two simple sentences—(1) 'you will be prosperous,' and (2) 'you will number many friends'—are so united that the first only specifies the time of the second: You will number many friends (when?), so long as you shall be properous. The parts thus united are called Clauses or Members.

Note 2.—The part of the complex sentence which makes complete sense of itself—multos numerābis anācos—is called the Principal or Independent Clause; and the part which is dependent upon it—dônec eris felix—is called the Subordinate or Dependent Clause.

349. A Compound Sentence expresses two or more independent thoughts:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting and the mountains are shaded. Verg.

- 350. A DECLARATIVE SENTENCE has the form of an assertion: Miltindes accusatus est, Miltindes was accused. Nep.
- 351. An Interrogative Sentence has the form of a question:

Quis loquitur, who speaks? Ter. Quis non paupertatem extimeseit, who does not fear poverty? Cic. Quid ais, what do you say? Ter. Ec-

quid¹ animadvertis silentium, do you not notice the silence? Cie. Qualis est oratio, what kind of an oration is it? Cie. Quot sunt, how many are there? Plant. Ubi sunt, where are they? Cie. Ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we? Cie. Visne fortunam experiri meam, do you wish to try my fortune? Cie. Nonne nobilitari volunt, do they not wish to be renowned? Cie. Num igitur peccamus, are we then at fault? Cie.

1. Interrogative Words.—Interrogative sentences generally contain some interrogative word—either an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or one of the interrogative particles: 2 -ne, nonne, num; see examples above.

Note 1.—Questions with -ne ask for information: Scribitne, 'is he writing?' No is sometimes appended to utrum, num, or an, without affecting their meaning, and sometimes inserted in the clause after utrum:

Numne ferre arma debuërunt, ought they to have borne arms? Cic. Utrum taceanne, an praedicem, shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter,

Note 2.—Questions with nonne expect the answer yes: Nonne scribit, 'is he not writing?'

Note 3.—Questions with num expect the answer no: Num scrībit, 'is he writing?' Note 4.—For questions with an, see 353, note 4.

2. The particle -ne is always appended to some other word, generally to the emphatic word of the sentence, i. e., to the word upon which the question especially turns; appended to  $n\bar{o}n$ , it forms  $n\bar{o}nne$ :

Visne experiri, do you wish to try? Cic. Tüne id veritus es, did you fear this? Cic. Omnisne pecinia solūta est, has all the money been paid? Cic. Hōcinest (= hōcine est 3) officium patris, is this the duty of a father? Ter. Unquamne vidīstī, have you ever seen? Cic. Nōnne volunt, do they not wish? Cic.

Sometimes no interrogative word is used, especially in impassioned discourse:

Crēditis, do you believe? Verg. Ego non potero, shall I not be able? Cic.

4. An emphatic tandem, meaning indeed, pray, then, often occurs in interrogative sentences:

Quod genus tandem est istud gloriae. what kind of glory is that, pray? Cic.

Note 1.—Nam, appended to an interrogative, also adds emphasis:

Numnam haec audivit, did he hear this, pray? Ter.

Note 2.—For Two Interrogatives in the same clause, and for an Interrogative with tantus, see 454, 3 and 4.

352. Answers.—Instead of replying to a question of fact with a simple particle meaning yes or no, the Latin usually repeats the verb or some emphatic word, often with  $pr\bar{o}rsus$ ,  $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$ , and the like, or if negative, with  $n\bar{o}n$ :

Dixitne causam, did he state the cause? Dixit, he stated it. Cic. Possumusne tuti csse, can we be safe? Non possumus, we can not. Cic.

<sup>1</sup> Ecquid, though the neuter accusative of an interrogative pronoun, has become in effect a mere particle with the force of nonne.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See **311**, 8, foot-note.

<sup>3</sup> See 27, note.

Note 1.—Sometimes the simple particle is used—affirmatively,  $s\bar{u}n\bar{z}$ , ctiam, ita,  $v\bar{c}r\bar{o}$ ,  $oert\bar{c}$ , etc.; negatively,  $n\bar{o}n$ ,  $minim\bar{c}$ , etc.

Venitne, has he come? Non, no. Plant.

Note 2.—Sometimes, without an actual repetition of the emphatic word, some equivalent expression is used;

Tuam vestem detraxit tibi, did he strip off your coat? Factum, he did-lit., done, for it was done. Ter.

353. Double or Disjunctive Questions offer a choice or alternative, and generally take one of the following forms:

1. The first clause has utrum or -nc, and the second an:

Utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est, is that your fault or ours? Cic. Romanne venio an hie manco, do I go to Rome, or do I remain here? Cic.

2. The first clause omits the particle, and the second L is an, or anne:

Éloquar an sileam, shall I utter it, or keep silence? Verg. Gabinio dicam anne Pompējo, to Gabinius, shall I say, or to Pompey? Cic.

Note 1 .- Other forms are rare.1

Note 2.—Utrum sometimes stands before a disjunctive question with -ne in the first clause and an in the second:

Utrum, taceamne, an praedicem, which, shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter.

Note 3.—When the second clause is negative, the particle generally unites with the negative, giving annon or necne:

Sunt have tua verba necne, are these your words or not? Cic.

Note 4.—By the emission of the first clause, the second often stands alone with an, in the sense of an, implying a negative answer:

An hộc timemus, or do we fear this? Liv.

Note 5.—Disjunctive questions sometimes have three or more members: 2

Gabinio anne l'ompéio an utrique, to Gabinius, or Pompey, or both? Cie.

Note 6.— Disjunctive questions inquire which aiternative is true. These must be distinguished—

1) From such single questions as inquire whether either alternative is true:

Sölem dicam aut lünam deum, shall I call the sun or the moon a god? 3 Cic.

2) From two separate questions, introduced respectively by num, implying a negative answer, and by an, implying an affirmative answer:

Num furis? an ludis me? are you mad? or do you not rather mock me? Hor.

354. An Imperative Sentence has the form of a command, exhortation, or entreaty:

Justitiam cole, cultivate justice. Cic.

355. An Exclamatory Sentence has the form of an exclamation:

Reliquit quos viros, what men he has left! Cie.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Thus, in Vergil, -ne occurs in both clauses, also -ne in the first with seu in the second. In Horace, -ne occurs in the second clause with no particle in the first.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cleero, in his oration  $Pr\tilde{o}$  Dom $\tilde{o}$ , xxil., 57, has a question of this kind extended to eight clauses, the first introduced by utrum and each of the others by un.

<sup>3</sup> Observe that in this sense aut, not an, is used.

Note 1.—Many sentences introduced by interregative pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs may be so  $s_i$  oken as to become exchanatory:

Quibus gaudiīs exsultābis, in what joys will you exult! Cic.

Note 2.—Some declarative and imperative sentences readily become exclamatory.

Note 3.-Exclamatory sentences are often elliptical.

### II. ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

- 356. The Simple Sentence in its most simple form consists of two distinct parts, expressed or implied:
  - 1. The Subject, or that of which it speaks:
  - 2. The Predicate, or that which is said of the subject:

Cluîlius moritur. Cluilius dies. Liv.

357. The SIMPLE SENTENCE in its MOST EXPANDED FORM consists only of these same parts with their various modifiers:

In his castris Cluilius, Albanus rex, moritur, Cluilius, the Alban king, dies in this camp.<sup>2</sup> Liv.

- 1. The subject and predicate of a sentence are called the *Principal* or *Essential* elements; their modifiers, the *Subordinate* elements.
- 2. The elements, whether principal or subordinate, may be either simple or complex:
  - 1) Simple, when not modified by other words; see 358.
  - 2) Complex, when thus modified; see 359.
- 358. The SIMPLE SUBJECT of a sentence must be a noun, a pronoun, or some word or words used as a noun: 3

Rex decrevit, the king decreel. Nep. Ego scribo, I write. Cic. Ibam, I was walking. Hor. Vicimus, we have conquered. Cic. Video idem valet, the word video has the same meaning. Quint.

359. The Complex Subject consists of the simple subject with its modifiers:

Populus Rōmānus dēcrēvit, the Roman people decreed. Cic. Cluîlius rêx moritur, Cluîlius the king dies. Liv. Rēx Rutulōrum, the king of the Rutuli. Liv. Liber dē officiis, the book on duties. Cic.

Note 1.- The subject is thus modified-

- By an adjective: Populus Rômânus.
- 2) By a noun in apposition; Chailius  $r\bar{e}x$ .
- 3) By a genitive: Rex Rutulerum.
- 4) By a noun with a preposition: Liber de officies.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Here Cluilius is the subject, and moritur the predicate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Here Cluilius, Albānus rix, is the subject in its enlarged or modified form, and in his castris moritur is the predicate in its enlarged or modified form.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> A pronominal subject is always contained or implied in the personal ending. Thus m in 7ba-m is a pronominal stein = ego, and is the true original subject of the verb. See also 247; 368, 2, foot-note,

NOTE 2.—A noun or pronoun used to explain or identify another nonn or pronoun denoting the same person or thing, is called an Appositive; as Civilius rex, 'Cluilius the king.'

Note 3 .- Any noun may be modified like the subject.

Note 4.-Sometimes adverbs occur as modifiers of nouns:

Non ignārī sumus ante malorum, we are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Verg.

360. The SIMPLE PREDICATE must be either a verb, or the copula *sum* with a noun or adjective:

Miltiades est accūrītus, Miltiades was accused. Nep. Tū es testis, you are a witness, Cie. Fortūna caeca est, fortune is blind. Cie.

Note 1.—Like sum, several other verbs sometimes unite with a noun or an adjective to form the predicate; see 362, 2. A noun or an adjective thus used is called a *Predicate Noun* or *Predicate Adjective*.

Note 2.-Sum with an adrerb sometimes forms the predicate:

Omnia recte sunt, all things are RIGHT. Cic.

361. The Complex Predicate consists of the simple predicate with its modifiers:

Miltiades Athènàs liberavit, Miltiades liberated Athens. Nep. Labòri student, they devote themselves to labor. Caes. Mè rogàvit sententiam, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Pons iter hostibus dedit, the bridge furnished a passage to the enemy. Liv. Bella feliciter gessit, he wayed wars excessfully. Cic. In his castris moritur, he dies (where?) in this camp. Liv. Vère convenère, they assembled (when?) in the spring. Liv.

- 1. The Predicate, when a verb, is thus modified—
- 1) By an Accusative: Athēnās līberāvit.
- 2) By a Dative: Labori student.
- 3) By two Accusatives: Me rogavit sententiam.
- 4) By an Accesative and a Dative: Iter hostibus dedit.
- 5) By an Adverb: Feliciter gessit.
- 6) By an Adverbial Phrase: In his castris moritur.

Note 1.—Still other modifiers occur with special predicates; see 406, 409, 410, 422

NOTE 2.—No one predicate admits all the modifiers here given. Thus only transitive verbs admit an Accusative (371); only intransitive verbs, a Dative alone (384, I.); and only special verbs, two Accusatives (374).

2. A PREDICATE Noun is modified like the subject:

Hace virtus omnium est regina virtutum, this virtue is the queen of all virtues. Cic. See also 359, notes 1 and 3.

- 3. A PREDICATE ADJECTIVE is modified-
- 1) By an Adverb: Satis humilis est, he is sufficiently humble. Liv.
- 2) By an Oblique Case: Avidi laudis fuerunt, they were desirous of praise. Cic. Omni aetāti mors est commūnis, death is common to every age. Cic. Digni sunt amicitiā, they are worthy of friendship. Cic.

Note. - Any adjective may be modified like the predicate adjective:

Eques Romanus satis litteratus, a Roman knight sufficiently literary. Cic.

# CHAPTER II.

# SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

### SECTION I.

### AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

#### RULE I.-Predicate Nouns.

362. A noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in Case:<sup>2</sup>

Brûtus custos Ilbertātis fuit, Brutus was the Guardian of liberty. Liv. Servius rex est declaratus, Servius was declared King. Liv. Orestem se esse dixit, he said that he was Orestes. Cic. See 360, note 1.

Note.—This rule applies also to nouns predicated of pronouns: 4

Ego sum nūntius, I am a messenger. Liv.

1. A Predicate Noun with different forms for different genders must agree in Gender as well as in Case:

Usus magister 6 est, experience is an instructor. Cic. Historia est magistra 5 (not magister), history is an instructress. Cic.

- 2. Predicate Nouns are most frequent with the following verbs:
- With sum and a few intransitive verbs—ēvādō, exsistō, appārcō, and the like:

Homo magnus evascrat, he had become (turned out) a great man. Cic. Exstitit vindex libertatis, he became (stood forth) the defender of liberty. Cic. See also examples under the rule.

2) With Passive Verbs of appointing, making, naming, regarding, esteeming, and the like:

Servius rēz est dēclārātus, Servius was declared king. Liv. Mundus cīvitās existimātur, the world is regarded as a state. Cie.

Note 1.—In the poets, Predicate Nouns are used with great freedom after verbs of a great variety of significations. Thus with  $audi\tilde{o} = appellor$ :

Rêx audisti, you have been called King; i. e., have heard yourself so called. Hor. Ego divum incedo regina, I walk as queen of the gods. Verg.

- <sup>1</sup> For convenience of reference, the Rules will be presented in a body on page 324.
- <sup>2</sup> For Predicate Genitive, see 401.
- <sup>3</sup> In these examples custes, rev. and Orestem are all predicate nouns, and agree in case respectively with  $Er\bar{u}tus$ , Servius, and  $s\bar{e}$  (536).
  - 4 As all substantive pronouns have the construction of nonns; see 182.
- Observe that in \(\tilde{u}\)sus magister est, the masculine form, magister, is used to agree in gender with \(\tilde{u}\)sus; while in \(historia\) est magistra, the feminine form, magistra, is used to agree in gender with \(historia\).

Note 2.-For Predicate Accusative, see 373, 1.

Note 3.—The Dative of the object for which (390), prō with the Ablative, and loeō or numerō or in numero with the Genitive, are often kindred in force to Predicate Nouns; nostō, prō hoste, loco hostes, numerō (or in numerō) hostenu, 'for an enemy,' or 'as an enemy!

Fuit omnibus bono, it was a benefit (lit., for a benefit) to all. Cic. Sicilia nobis pro aeròrio fuit, Sicily was a theaster (for a theaster) for us. Cic. Quaestori parentis loco fuit, he was a parent (lit., in the place of a parent) to the questor.

Cic. Is till parentis numerò fuit, he was a parent to you. Cic. See also Predicate Gentitee, 401.

3. PREDICATE NOUNS are used not only with finite verbs, but also with INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES, and sometimes without verb or participle:

Declaratus rex Numa, Nama having been declared King. Liv. Caninio consule, Caninius being consult. Cic. Sec 431, also Orestem under the rule.

Note 1.—For a Predicate Nominative after the Infinitive esse, see 536, 2, 4).

Note 2.—For an Infinitive or a Clause instead of a Predicate Noun; see 539; 501.

# RULE II.-Appositives.

363. An Appositive agrees in Case with the noun or pronoun which it qualifies:

Cluīlius rēx moritur, Cluīlius the King dies. Liv. Urbēs Karthāgō atque Numantia, the cities Carthage and Numantia. Cic. Saguntum, foederātam cīvitātem, expūgnāvit, he took Saguntum, an allied town. Liv. See 359, note 2.

 An Appositive with different forms for different genders must agree in Gender as well as in Case;

Cluflius  $r\bar{e}x$ , Cluilius the King. Liv. Venus  $r\bar{e}g\bar{t}na$ , Venus the queen. Hor.

2. An Appositive often agrees with the pronoun implied in the ending of the verb:

Hostis 2 hostem occidere volui, I, an enemy, wished to slay an enemy. Liv.

- 3. Appositives are kindred in force-
- 1) Generally to Relative clauses:

Cluilius rex, Cluilius (who was) the King. Liv.

2) Sometimes to other Subordinate clauses. 3 as Temporal, Concessive, etc.: Fürius puer didicit, Furius learned when he was a boy of as a boy. Cic. Jünius aedem dictator dedicavit, Junius dedicated the temple when dictator, Liv.

4. By Synesis 4-a Construction according to Sense:

I See 362, 1, foot-note.

<sup>2</sup> Hostis agrees with ego, implied in rolu?, 'I wished'; see 358, foot-note.

<sup>3</sup> This construction is sometimes called Adverbial Apposition.

<sup>4</sup> See Figures of Speech, 636, IV., 4.

1) Posses vives admit a Genitive in apposition with the Genitive of the pronoun implied in them:

Tua ipsīus amīcitia, your own friendship. Cic. Meum sōlius peccātum, my fault alone. Cic. Nōmen meum abseutis, my name in my absence. Cic.

2) Locatives admit as an Appositive a Locative Ablative (411, 425), with or without a preposition:

Albae constitutunt in urbe opportună, they halted at Alba, a convenient city. Cic. Corinthi, Achaiae urbe, at Corinth, a city of Achaia. Tac.

5. CLAUSES.—A noun or pronoun may be in apposition with a clause, or a clause in apposition with a noun or pronoun:

Nos, id<sup>3</sup> quod debet, patria delectat, our country delights us, as it ought. Cic. Omnos interfici jūssit, mūnīmentum<sup>3</sup> ad praesēns, he ordered them all to be put to death, a means of protection for the present. Tac. For clauses in apposition with nouns or pronouns, see 499, 3; 501, III.

364. Partitive Apposition.—The parts may be in apposition with the whole, or the whole in apposition with the parts:

Duo reges, ille bello, hie pace, civitatem auxerunt, two kings advanced the state, the former by war, the latter by peace. Liv. Ptolemacus et Cleopatra, reges 4 Aegypti, Ptolemy and Cleopatra, rulers of Egypt. Liv.

### SECTION II.

### GENERAL VIEW OF CASES.

365. Cases, in accordance with their general force, may be arranged and characterized as follows:

I. Nominative,	Case of the Subject.
II. Vocative,	Case of Address.
III. Accusative,	Case of Direct Object.
IV. Dative,	Case of Indirect Object.
V. Genitive,	Case of Adjective Relations.
VI. Ablative,	Case of Adverbial Relations.

<sup>1</sup> Ipsus agrees with twi (of you) involved in twa; solins and absentis, with met involved in meum. The Genitive of ipse, solus, unus, and omnis is often thus used.

 $<sup>^2</sup>$  As a Locative Ablative is a genuine Locative in sense, there is no special irregularity here, and in urbe opportuna may be explained as a separate modifier of the verb: 'They halted at Alba, at a convenient city.' Thus explained, it is not an appositive at all.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Id quod debet, lit., that which it owes. Id and mūnīmentum are in apposition respectively with nos delected and omnes interfice, and are best explained as Accusatives. A Nominative apparently in apposition with a clause is generally best explained either as an appositive to some Nominative, or as the subject of a separate clause.

<sup>4</sup> In the first example, ille and hie, the parts, are in apposition with reges, the whole; but in the second example, reges, the whole, is in apposition with the parts, Ptolemaeus and Cleopatra.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> This arrangement is adopted in the discussion of the cases, because, it is thought, it will best present the force of the several cases and their relation to each other.

- 366. The Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Vocative have probably retained with very slight modifications their original force as developed in the mother tongue from which the Latin was derived.
- 367. The Ablative combines within itself the separate offices of three cases which were originally distinct: 2
- 1. The Ablatice proper, denoting the relation from—the place from which
- 2. The Locative, denoting the relation IN, AT—the place IN or AT which.
- 3. The Instrumental, denoting the relation WITH, BY—the instrument or means WITH or BY which.

### SECTION III.

### NOMINATIVE.-VOCATIVE.

### I. Nominative.

### RULE III.-Subject Nominative.

368. The subject of a finite verb is put in the Nominative:

Servius rēgnāvit, Servius reigned. Liv. Patent portae, the gates are open. Cic. Rēz vīcit, the king conquered. Liv. Ego rēgēs ējēcī, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

- 1. The subject is always a substantive, a pronoun, or some word or clause used substantively;  $^4$  see examples under the rule.
- 2. A pronominal subject is always expressed or implied in the ending of the verb:  $^{5}$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> That is, in the primitive Indo-European tongue, from which have been derived, either directly or indirectly, not only the Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, but also the English, French, German, and indeed nearly all the languages of modern Europe. Upon the general subject of \*Cuses\*, their original formation and meaning, see Bopp. 1., pp. 242-5.9; Merguet, pp. 17-117; Yenka, Hübsehmann, Holzweissig, Delbrück, and, among the earlier writers, Hartung, 'Veber die Casus,' etc., and Rumpel, 'Casusleire,'

<sup>2</sup> See Delbrück, 'Ablatly, Localis, Instrumentalis.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> For the Subject of the Infinitive, see 536. For the Agreement of the verb with its subject, see 460.

<sup>4</sup> For clauses used substantively, see 540.

<sup>•</sup> See 247. Thus moneo means I (not you, he, or we, but I) instruct. Indeed, every verb contains a pronominal subjet in itself, and in general it is necessary to add a separate subject only when it would otherwise be doubtful to whom the implied pronoun refers. Thus r'gn'vit, 'he reignel,' is complete of itself, if the context shows to

Discipulos moneō¹ ut studia ament, I instruct pupils to love (that they may love) their studies. Quint. Non scholae, sed vitae discimus, we learn not for the school, but for life. Sen.

Note.—A separate pronominal subject may, however, be added for the sake of clearness, emphasis, or contrast, as in the fourth example under the rule.

3. The verb is sometimes omitted, when it can be readily supplied, especially if it is est or sunt:

Ecce tuae litterac, lo your letter (comes). Cie. Tot sententiae, there are (sunt) so many opinions. Ter. Consul profectus (est), the consul set out. Liv.

Note 1.—The verb facio is often omitted in short sentences and clauses:

Melius hī, quam võs, these have done better than you. Cie. Rēctē ille, he does rightly. Cie. Cotta finem, Cotta closed, lit., made an end. Cie. So also in Livy after nihil aliud (amplius, minus, etc.) quam, 'nothing other (more, less, etc.) than'= 'merely'; nihil praeterquam, 'nothing except'= 'merely': Nihil aliud quam stetërunt, they merely stood (did nothing other than). Liv.

Note 2.—Certain forms of expression often dispense with the verb:

Quid, what? quid enim, what indeed? quid ergō, what then? quid quod, what of the fact that? quid phira, why more, or why shall I say more? nē plūra, not to say more? në multa, not to say much; quid hōc ad mē, what is this to me? nihil ad rem, nothing to the subject.

Note 3 .- For the Predicate Nominative, see 362.

Note 4.—For the Nominative as an Appositive, see 363.

Note 5.—For the Nominative in Exclamations, see 381, note 3.

### II. VOCATIVE.

### RULE IV .- Case of Address.

369. The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative:

Perge, Laclī, proceed, Laelius. Cic. Quid est, Catilīna, why is it, Catiline? Cic. Tuum est, Scrvī, rēgnum, the kingdom is yours, Servius. Liv. Ō diī immortālēs, O immortal gods. Cic.

- 1. An Interjection may or may not accompany the Vocative.
- 2. In poetry, and sometimes in prose, the Nominative in apposition with the subject occurs where we should expect the Vocative:

Audī tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban People. Liv.

3. Conversely, the Vocative by attraction sometimes occurs in poetry where we should expect the Nominative:

Quibus, Hector, ab ōrīs exspectāte venīs, from ichat shores, Hector, do you anxiously awaited come? Verg. Macte novā virtūte, puer, a blessing on your new valor, boy (lit., be enlarged by; supply estō). Verg.

whom the pronoun he refers; if not, the noun must be added: Servius rēgnāvil, lit., he, Servius, reigned, or Servius, he reigned. In the fourth example under the rule, ego and ros, though already implied in the form of the verb. are expressed for emphasis. In impersonal verbs the subject 'it,' in English, is implied in the personal ending t

<sup>1</sup> See preceding foot-note.

### SECTION IV.

### ACCUSATIVE.

370. The Accusative is used '-

- I. As the Direct Object of an Action;
- II. In an Adverbial Sense—with or without Prepositions;

III. In Exclamations—with or without Interjections.

Note 1.—For the Predicate Accusative, see 362 and 373, 1.

Note 2.—For the Accusative in Apposition, see 363.

Note 3.-For the Accusative with Prepositions, see 433.

Note 4 .- For the Accusative as the Subject of an Infinitive, see 536.

### I. Accusative as Direct Object.

### RULE V .- Direct Object.

# 371. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the World. Cie. Līberā rem pūblicam, free the Republic. Cie. Populī Rōmānī salūtem dēfendite, defend the safety of the Roman people. Cie.

- I. The DIRECT OBJECT may be-
- 1. An External Object, the person or thing on which the action of the verb is directly exerted, as salūtem above.
- 2. An Internal Object; i. e., one already contained or implied in the action itself. This embraces two varieties:
- 1) In a STRICT SENSE, the Cognate Accusative, an object having a meaning cognate or kimbred to that of the verb:

Servitūtem servīre,2 to serve in bondage (lit., to serve a servitude). Ter.

2) In a freez sense, the Accusative of Effect, the object produced by the action:

Librum scribere, to write a BOOK. Cic.

Note.—Participles in dus, verbal adjectives in bundus, and in Plautus a few verbal nouns, occur with the accusative:

Vitábundus eastra, aroiding the camp. Liv. Quid tibí hanc cúrátióst (cúrátió est) a rem = cúr hanc rem cúrás, what care have you of this? Plaut.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Accusative is probably the oldest of all the oblique cases known to our family of languages, and was therefore originally the sole modifier of the verb, expressing in a vague and general way several relations now recognized as distinct. This theory accounts for the great variety of constructions in which the Accusative is used in Latin. See Curtius, 'Zur Chronologie,' pp. 71-71; Holzweissig, pp. 31-38.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The pupil will observe that the idea of servitatem, 'servitude,' 'service,' is contained in the verb service,' to serve,' to be a slave or servant.'

<sup>3</sup> See 27, note.

II. The Cognate Accusative is generally—(1) a noun with an adjective or other modifier, or (2) a neuter pronoun or adjective. It is used quite freely both with transitive and with intransitive verbs, and sometimes even with verbs in the passive voice:

Eam vitam vivere, to live that life. Cic. Mirum somniāre comnium, to dream a wonderful dream. Plaut. Ladem peceat, he makes the same mistakes. Cic. Hoe studet ünum, he studies this one thing (this one study). Hor. Perfidum ridens Venus, Venus smiting a perfidious smile. Hor. Id assentior, I assent to this (I give this assent). Cic. Idem glöriāri, to make the same boast. Cic. Quid possunt, how powerful are they, or what power have they? Caes. Ea monēmur, we are almonished of these things. Cic. Nihil moti sunt, they were not at all moves! Liv.

Note.-Here may be mentioned the following kindred constructions:

Vox hominem sonat, the roice sounds human. Verg. Saltare Cyclopa, to dance the Cyclops, Hor. Longam viam ife, to go a long way. Verg. Bellum pügnäre, to fight a battle. Verg.

III. Special Verbs.—Many verbs of Feeling or Emotion, of Taste and Smell, admit the Accusative:

Honores desperat, he despairs of honors. Cic. Hace gemebant, they were sighing over these things. Cic. Detrimenta ridet, he laughs at losses. Hor. Olet unquents, he has the odor of perfumes. Ter. Oratio redolet antiquitatem, the oration smacks of antiquity. Cic.

Note 1.—Such verbs are:  $d\tilde{e}sp\tilde{e}r\tilde{o}$ , to despair of;  $dole\tilde{o}$ , to grieve for;  $gem\tilde{o}$ , to sigh ever;  $horre\tilde{o}$ , to shudder at;  $lacrim\tilde{o}$ , to weep over;  $maere\tilde{o}$ , to mourn over;  $m\tilde{r}r\tilde{o}r$ , to wonder at;  $r\tilde{i}de\tilde{o}$ , to laugh at;  $sit\tilde{o}$ , to thirst for, etc.;  $ole\tilde{o}$ , to have the odor of;  $sap\tilde{i}\tilde{o}$ , to savor of, whether used literally or figuratively.

Note 2.—Many verbs in Latin, as in English, are sometimes transitive and sometimes intransitive; see *augeō*, *dūrō*, *incipiō*, *laxō*, *ruō*, *suppeditō*, *turbō*, etc., in the Dictionary.

Note 3.—Many verbs which are usually rendered by *transitive* verbs in English are *intransitive* in Latin, and thus admit only an *indirect* object or some special construction; see 385.

Note 4.—The object of a transitive verb is often omitted, when it can be easily supplied:  $more\bar{o} = more\bar{o} m\bar{e}$ , 'I move (myself)';  $rertit = rertit s^2$ , 'he turns (himself)':

Castris non movit, he did not more from his camp. Liv. Jam verterat fortunafortune had already changed. Liv.

NOTE 5 .- For the Fassive Construction, see 464.

IV. An Infinitive or a Clause may be used as Direct Object:

Imperare cupiunt, they desire to rule. Just. Opto ut id audiātis, I desire that you may hear this. Cic.

<sup>1</sup> Peccat, 'he makes a mistake'; idem peccat, 'he makes the same mistake,' where idem represents idem peccitum.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Literally, ire are admonished these things, i. e., these admonitions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Observe that with the Accusative dispirō means not 'to despair,' but 'to despair of 'and is accordingly transitive; deleō, not 'to grieve,' but 'to grieve for,' etc. With some of the verbs here given the object is properly a Cognate Accusative.

**372.** Many Compounds of intransitive verbs with prepositions, especially compounds of verbs of motion with *circum*, *per*, *practer*, *trâns*, and *super*, take the Accusative:

Murinur contionem perväsit, a murmur went through the assembly. Liv. Ehenum tränsièrant, they crossed (went across) the Rhine. Caes. Circumstant sendium, they stand around the senate. Cic. Herelitätem obire, to enter upon the inheritance. Cic. Eas nationes adire, to go to those nations. Caes. Undam imatare, to float upon the wave. Verg. Tela extre, to aroid the weapons. Verg. Gallos praceddunt, they surpass the Gauls. Caes.

### RULE VI.-Two Accusatives-Same Person.

373. Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing:

Hamilearem imperātōrem fēcērunt, they made Hamilear commander. Nep. Ancum rēgem populus creāvit, the people elected Ancus king. Liv. Summum cōnsilium appellārunt Senātum, they called their highest council Senate. Cic. Sē praestitit prōpāgnātōrem lībertātis, he showed himself the champion of liberty. Cic. Flaccum habiit collēgam, he had Flaccus as colleague. Nep. Sōcratēs tōtīus mundī sē cīvem arbitrābātur, Socratēs considered himself a citizen of the whole world. Cic.

1. Predicate Accusative.—One of the two Accusatives is the *Direct Object*, and the other an essential part of the Predicate. The latter may be called a *Predicate Accusatice*; see 362.

Note 1.—Habeō, 'to have,' admits two Accusatives, but when it means 'to regard,' it usually takes, instead of the Predicate Accusative, the Dative of the object for which (384), the Ablative with in or prō, or the Genitive with locō, numerō or in numerō: tādibriō habēre, 'to regard as an object of ridicule'; prō hoste habēre, in he stibus habēre, locō hostium habēre, numerō or in numerō hestium habēre, 'to regard as an enemy.' These constructions also occur with other verbs meaning to regard:

Ea honêrî habent, they regard these things as an honor. Sall. Illum prê hoste habêre, to regard him as an enemy. Caes. Jam prê factê habêre, to regard it as already done. Cle. In hostium numerê habuit, he regarded them as enemies (lit., in the number of, etc.). Caes. Mê prê derîdiculê putat, he regards me as an object of enougher. Ter.

Note 2.—The Predicate Accusative is sometimes an adjective:

Hominės caecės reddit avaritia, ararice renders men blind. Cic. Templa dečrum sancta babėbat, he regarded the temples of the gods as sacred. Nep.

In the Passive these verbs take two Nominatives—a Subject and a Predicate—corresponding to the two Accusatives of the Active:

Servius rêx est déclaratus, Servius was declared KING. Liv. See also 362, 2.

Observe that an intransitire verb may become transitive by being compounded with a preposition which does not take the Accusative.

# RULE VII.-Two Accusatives-Person and Thing.

374. Some verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and concealing, admit two Accusatives—one of the *person* and the other of the *thing*:

Mē sertentiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. Cie. Philosophia nōs rēs omnēs docuit, philosophy has taught us all things. Cie. Auxilia rēgem ōrābant, they asked auxiliaries from the king. Liv. Pāecm tē poscimus, we demand peace of you. Verg. Nōn tē cēlāvī sermōnem, I did not conceal from you the conversation. Cie.

1. In the Passive the Person becomes the subject, and the Accusative of the thing is retained;

Me sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Ego sententiam rogātus sum, I was asked my opinion. Cic. Artēs ēdoctus fuerat, he had been taught the arts. Liv.

2. Two Accusatives are generally used with cēlō, doccō, ēdoccō; often with rogō, poscō, reposcō; sometimes with dēdoccō, exposcō, flagitō, ōrō, etc., cōn-sulō, interrogō, percontor; rarely with moneō, admoneō, and postulō.

Note 1.—Cilb, 'to conceal,' takes—(1) in the Active generally two Accusatives, as under the rule, but sometimes the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing with der (2) in the Passive, the Accusative of a neuter pronoun or the Ablative with der.

Me de hoe libro celavit, he kept me ignorant of this book. Cie. Id celari, to be kept ignorant of this. Nep. Celari de consilio, to be kept ignorant of the flan. Cie.

Note 2.—Doce5 and ¿doce5 generally follow the rule, but sometimes they take the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing with or without dé, and sometimes the Accusative of the person with the Infinitive or a subjunctive Clause:

D' sua re me docet, he informs me in eegard to his case. Cic. Litter's Grace's doctus. instructed in Greek literature. Sall. Socratem fidibus 3 docuit, he taught Socrates (with) the lyre. Cic. To supere docet, he teaches you to be wise. Cic.

Note 3.—Most verbs of asking and demanding sometimes take two Accusatives, but verbs of asking, questioning, generally take the Accusative of the person<sup>4</sup> and the Ablative of the thing<sup>4</sup> with d<sup>7</sup>, and verbs of imploring, demanding, generally the Accusative of the thing<sup>4</sup> and the Ablative of the person<sup>4</sup> with d̄ or ab:

Të his  $d\bar{e}$   $r^5bus$  interrogë, I ask you in begard to these things. Cie. Vietőriam ab  $d\bar{v}$  exposeers, to implore victory from the gods. Caes. Id ab  $e\bar{o}$  flagitäre, to demand this from him. Caes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Other verbs of teaching— $irudi\bar{o}$ ,  $institu\bar{o}$ ,  $inf\bar{o}rm\bar{o}$ ,  $instru\bar{o}$ , etc.—generally take the Ablative of the thing with or without a preposition, as in or  $d\bar{e}_i$ ; see Dictionary.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Doceō, in the sense of inform, takes dē with the Ablative.

<sup>3</sup> The Accusative may be omitted. With fidibus supply canere,

<sup>4</sup> The Accusative or Ablative of the person is often emitted, and a clause often takes the place of the Accusative or Ablative of the thing. For examples and for special constructions, see, in the Dictionary, censulo, interrogo, rogo; also flagito, oro, posco, cotosco, and reposco.

Note 4.—P(t) and postulo generally take the Accusative of the thing 1 and the Ablative of the person with  $\tilde{a}$  or ab; quaero, the Accusative of the thing 1 and the Ablative of the person with  $\tilde{e}$  or ex,  $\tilde{a}$ , ab, or  $d\tilde{e}$ :

Pacem ab Remain peticrinit, they asked peace from the Romais. Caes. Aliquid ab amicis postulage, to demand something from friends. Cic. Quacrit ex solo ea, etc., he asks of him in friends: (from him alone) those questions, etc. Caes.

375. A NEUTER PRONOUN OF ADJECTIVE as a Cognate 2 Accusative occurs in connection with a Direct Object with many verbs which do not otherwise take two Accusatives:

Hốc tế hortor, I exhort you to this, I give you this exhortation. Cie. Ea<sup>3</sup> monemur, we are admonished of these things. Cic. So with velle, Caes., B. G. I., 34.

376. A few Compounds of trans, circum, and ad admit two Accusatives, dependent the one upon the verb, the other upon the preposition:

Ibèrum eopias trajècit, he led his forces across the Ebro. Liv. Animum adverti columellam, I noticed (turned my mind to) a small column. Cic.

Note.—In the Passive these compounds and some others admit an Accusative depending upon the preposition:

Praetervehor ostia Pantagiae, I am carried by the mouth of the Pantagias. Verg. Locum sum praetervectus, I have been carried by the place. Cic.

377. In Poetry, rarely in prose, verbs of clothing, unclothing—induō, exuō, cingō, accingō, indūcō, etc.—are sometimes used reflexively in the Passive, like the Greek Middle, and thus admit an Accusative:

Galéam induitur, he puts on his helmet. Verg. Inutile ferrum eingitur, he girds on his useless sword. Verg. Virgines longam indutae vēstem, maidens attired in long robes. Liv.

Note.—A few other verbs sometimes admit a similar construction in the poets:

Antiquum saturāta dolorem, having satisfied her o'd besentment. Verg. Suspēnsī loculis lacerto, with saturels hung upon t'ie arm (having hung, etc.). Hor. Pāscuntur sitvās, they browse on the forests. Verg.

# II. ACCUSATIVE IN AN ADVERBIAL SENSE.

# RULE VIII.-Accusative of Specification.

378. A verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to define its application:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Ablative of the person is often omitted, and, instead of the Accusative of the thing, a clause is often used. With  $postut\bar{o}$  and  $quaer\bar{o}$  the Ablative with  $d\bar{e}$  occurs. For examples and for other special constructions, see Dictionary.

<sup>2</sup> See 371, II.

<sup>3</sup> As a rare exception, moneô admits a noun as the Accusative of the thing; see Plant., Stich., 1, 2, 1.

<sup>4</sup> The Accusative of Specification is closely related to the Cognate Accusative and to the Poetic Accusative after Passive verbs used reflexively, both of which readily pass Into an adverbial construction. Thus capita in capita vilanur and galearn in galearn

Capita vēlāmur, we have our heads veiled (are veiled as to our heads, or have veiled our heads). Verg. Nūbe humerōs amietus, with his shoulders enveloped in a cloud. Hor. Mīles frāctus membra labōre, the soldier with limbs shattered with labor (broken as to his limbs). Hor. Aenēās ōs deō similis, Acneas like a god in appearance. Verg.

 In a strict sense, the Accusative of Specification generally specifies the part to which the action or quality particularly belongs. In this sense, it is mostly poetic, but occurs also in prose. See Ablative of Specification, 424.

2. În a freer sense, this Accusative includes the adverbial use of partem, ricem, nihil, of id and genus in id temporis, id aetātis (at this time, age), id genus, omne genus, quod genus (for ējus generis, etc.; etc.; also of secus, rēs, and of many neuter pronouns and adjectives—hōc, illud, id, quid (454, 2), multum, summum, cētera, rēlēqua, etc. In this sense, it is common in prose:

Maximan parten lacte vivunt, they live mostly (as to the largest part) upon milk. Caes. Locus id temporis vacuus erat, the place was at this time vacant. Cie. Aliquid id genus: scribere, to write something of this kind. Cie. Alias res est improbus, in other things (as to the rest) he is unprincipled. Plaut. Quaerit, quid possint, he inquires now powerful they are. Caes. Quid venisti, why have you come? Plaut.

# RULE IX.-Accusative of Time and Space.

379. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative:

Rōmulus septem et trīgintā rēgnāvit annōs, Romulus reigned thirty-seven years. Liv. Cỳrus quadrāgintā annōs nātus rēgnāre coepit, Cyrus beyan to reign (when) forty years old (having been born forty years). Cic. Quinque mīlia passuum ambulāre, to walk fice miles. Cic. Pedēs oetōgintā dīstāre, to be cighty feet distant. Caes. Nix quattuor pedēs alta, snow four feet deep. Liv. But—

 Duration of Time is sometimes expressed by the Ablative, or by the Accusative with a preposition:

Pügnätum est höris quinque, the battle was fought five nours. Caes. Per annos viginti certatum est, the war was waged for twenty years. Liv.

2. Distance is sometimes expressed by the Ablative:

Milibus passuum sex a Caesaris castris consedit, he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp. Caes.

Note.—Ab used adverbially, meaning off, sometimes accompanies the Ablative:

Ab milibus passuum dubbus castra posucrunt, they pitched their camp two miles

OFF. Caes.

induitur are similar constructions, while quid in quaerit quid possint may be explained either as a Cognate Accusative (371, 1., 2) or as an Adverbial Accusative.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Some grammarians treat genue in all such cases as an Appositive: aliquid, id genus, something, this kind, see Praeger, L, p. 2.

#### RULE X .- Accusative of Limit.

380. The PLACE TO WHICH is designated by the Accusative:

# I. Generally with a preposition—ad or in:

Legione's ad urbem adducit, he is leading the legions to or toward the city. Cie. Ad me scribunt, they are writing to me. Cie. In Asiam redit, he returns into Asia. Nep. Confugit in aram, he fled to the altar. Nep.

# II. In names of towns without a preposition:

Nuntius Römam redit, the messenger returns to Rome. Liv. Plato Tarrentum vēnit, Plato came to Tarentum. Cie. Fūgit Tarquinios, he fled to Tarquini. Cie. But—

Note.—Verbs meaning to collect, to come together, etc.—convenio, cōgō, convocō, etc.—are usually treated as verbs of motion, and thus take the Accusative, generally with a preposition; but verbs meaning to place—locō, collocō, pōnō, etc.—are usually treated as verbs of rest, and thus take the Ablative (425), generally with a preposition:

Ünum in locum convenire, to meet in one place. Caes. Copias in unum locum cogere, to collect forces in one place. Caes. In alterius mană vitam ponere, to place one's life in the hand of another. Cie.

1. In the NAMES OF TOWNS the Accusative with ad occurs—(1) to denote to, toward, in the direction of, into the vicinity of, and (2) in contrast with a or ab:

Très sunt viac ad Mutinam, there are three roads to Mutina. Cie. Ad Zamam pervènit, he came to the vicinity of Zama. Sall. Ā Diāniō ad Sinōpēn, from Dianium to Sinope. Cie.

- 2. Like names of towns are used-
- 1) The Accusatives domum, domōs, rūs:

Scipió domum reductus est, Scipio was conducted nome. Cie. Domôs abducti, led to their nomes. Liv. Rūs évoláre, to hasten into the country. Cie. Domum reditió, a return nome. Caes.

2) Sometimes the Accusative of names of islands and peninsulas:

Lătôna cônfûgit *Pêlum*, *Latona fled* to Delos. Cic. Pervênit *Chersonê-sum*, he went to the Chersonesus. Nep.

- 3) Rarely a few other Accusatives, as exsequiās, infitiās, etc.: 2
- Ille infitias ibit, he will deny (will proceed to a denial). Ter.
- 3. The preposition is sometimes omitted before names of countries, and, in the poets, before names of nations and even before common nouns:

Originally the place to which was uniformly designated by the Accusative without a preposition. Names of towns have retained the original construction, while most other names of places have assumed a preposition.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See also the Supine in um, 546.

Aegyptum profügit, he fled to Egypt. Cic. Haliam vēnit, he came to Italy. Verg. Ībimus Āfrōs, we shall go to the Africans. Verg. Lāvīnia vēnit lītora, he came to the Lavīnian shores. Verg.

4. A POETICAL DATIVE occurs for the Accusative, with or without a preposition:

It clâmor caelō (for ad caelum), the shout ascends to heaven. Verg. Facilis descensus Avernō, easy is the descent to Hades. Verg. See 385, 4.

#### III. ACCUSATIVE IN EXCLAMATIONS.

#### RULE XI.-Accusative in Exclamations.

381. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in exclamations:

Heu mē miserum, ah me unhappy! Cic. Mē miserum, me miserable! ¹ Cic. Ō fallācem spem, O deceptive nope! Cic. Mē caecum, blind that I am! Cic. Prō deōrum fidem, in the name of the gods! Cic. Hanccine audāciam, this audacity? ² Cic. But—

Note 1.—An adjective or Genitive generally accompanies this Accusative, as in the examples.

Note 2.— $\bar{O}$ ,  $\bar{\epsilon}heu$ , and heu are the interjections most frequently used with the Accusative, though others occur.

Note 3.—Other eases also occur in exclamations:

1) The Vocative-when an address as well as an exclamation is intended:

Pro sancte Jappiter, O holy Jupiter. Cic. Infelix Dido, unhappy Dido. Verg.

2) The Nominative-when the exclamation approaches the form of a statement:

En destra, to the right hand (there is, or that is the right hand)! Verg. Ecce that Utteras, to your letter (comes)! Cic.

3) The Dative—to designate the person after ei, vae, and sometimes after ecce, èn, hem: 3

 $Ei\ mih\check{i}$ , woe to me. Verg.  $Vae\ tib\check{i}$ , woe to you. Ter.  $Ecce\ tib\check{i}$ , lo to you (lo here is to you = observe). Cic.  $En\ tib\check{i}$ , thus for you (lo I do this for you). Liv.

#### SECTION V.

#### DATIVE.

· 382. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object, and designates the Person to or for whom, or the Thing to or for which, anything is or is done.

See Milton, 'Paradise Lost,' IV., 73.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The exclamation may of course be interrogative in character.

<sup>3</sup> This is an Ethical Datire; see 389.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The *Indirect Object* is generally a *person*, or *something personified*. Utlike the Direct Object, it is never contained in the action or produced by it, but is in most instances the *interested recipient* of it.

<sup>6</sup> Whether this was the original meaning of the Dative is not known. Delbrück

383. The Dative is used—

- I. With a large class of Verbs and Adjectives;
- II. With a few special Nouns and Adverbs.

#### RULE XII.-Dative with Verbs.

384. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It is used—

## I. With Intransitive and Passive Verbs:

Tibī servio, I am devoted to vou. Plant. Serviunt populo, they are devoted to the people. Cie. Imperio pārēbant, they were obedient to (obeyed) authority. Caes. Temporī cēdit, he yields to the time. Cie. Laborī student, they devote themselves to labor. Caes. Mundus deō pāret, the world obeys God. Cie. Caesarī supplicābō, I will supplicate Caesar. Cie. Nōbīs vīta data est, lije has been granted to us. Cie. Numitōrī dēditur, he is delivered to Numitor. Liv.

# II. With TRANSITIVE Verbs, in connection with the DIRECT OBJECT:

Agrōs plēbī dedit, he gave lands to the common people. Cic. Tibī grātiās agō, I give thanks to you. Cic. Nātūra hominem conciliat hominī, Nature reconciles man to man. Cic. Pōns iter hostibus dedit, the bridge gave a passage to the enemy. Liv. Lēgēs cīvitātibus suīs scrīpsērunt, they prepared laws for their states. Cic.

- 1. The Indirect Object may be-
- 1) The Dative of Influence, designating the person to whom something is or is done:

Serviunt populô, they are devoted to the people. Cic. Agrès plèbi dedit, he gave lands to the common people. Cic.

2) The Dative of Interest,<sup>2</sup> designating the person for whom something is or is done:

Sibi Megarênsês vîcit, he conquered the Megarians for himself. Just.

3) The Dative of Purpose or End, designating the object or end for which something is or is done;

Receptui eccinit, he gave the signal for a retreat. Liv.

thinks that this case originally designated the place or object toward which the action tended. See Kuhn's 'Zeitschrift,' vol. xviii., p. 81.

1 Is subject to God; will make supplication to Caesar.

2 Observe that the Dative of Influence is very closely connected with the verb, and is, in fact, essential to the completeness of the sentence; while the Dative of Interest and the Dative of Purpose are merely added to sentences which would be complete without them. Thus Megarinsis oicit is complete in itself.

198

2. Double Construction.—A few verbs admit—(1) the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (2) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: alicui rem dōnāre, 'to present a thing to any one,' or aliquem rē dōnāre, 'to present any one with a thing': '

Praedam militibus donat, he gives the booty to the soldiers. Caes. Athinionses frümentö donavit, he presented the Athenians with grain. Nep.

Note.—This construction may also be used of objects which are in a measure personified, or which involve persons:

Murum urbi circumdedit, he built a wall around the city. Nep. Deus animum circumdedit corpore, God has encompassed the soul with a body. Cic.

- 3. To and for are not always signs of the Dative. Thus-
- 1) To, denoting mere motion or direction, is generally expressed by the Accusative with or without a preposition (380):

Vēnī ad urbem, I came to the city. Cie.  $D\bar{\epsilon}lum$  vēnimus, we came to Delos. Cie.

Note 1.—But the Dative occurs in the poets; see 380, 4, and 385, 4.

Note 2.— $Mitt\bar{\nu}$ , 'to send,' and  $scrib\bar{\nu}$ , 'to write,' take the Dative, or the Accusative with ad, to denote the person to whom;

Scribit Labieno, he writes to Labienus. Caes. Scribes ad mē, you will write to me. Cic.

2) For, in defence of, in behalf of, is expressed by the Ablative with pro; for the sake of, for the purpose of, sometimes by the Accusative with in:

Pro patria mori, to die for one's country. Hor. Dimicare pro libertate, to fight for liberty. Cie. Satis in usum, enough for use. Liv.

4. The Dative sometimes depends, not upon the verb alone, but upon the Predicate as a whole:

Tegimenta guleis<sup>2</sup> milités facere jubet, he orders the soldiers to make coverings for their helmets. Caes. Liberis divités esse volumus, we wish to be rich for the sake of our children. Cic. Quis huie rêt testis est, who testifies to this (lit., is a witness for this thing). Cic.

Note 1.—The Dative is used with verbs modified by satis, bene, and male, whether written as compounds or not:

Illis satis facere (also written satisfacere), to satisfy them. Caes. Cui bene dixit unquam, for whom has he ever spoken a good word? Cic. Optimo viro maledicere, to revite a most excellent man. Cic.

Note  $2.-\Lambda$  Dative is sometimes thus added to the predicate when the English idiom would lead us to expect a Genitive depending upon a noun:

In conspectum venerat hostibus, 4 he had come in sight of the enemy (lit., to the

- ¹ This double construction occurs chiefly with aspergō, circumdō, circumfundō, dōnō, exuō, impertiō, induō, īnspergō, interclūdō.
- <sup>2</sup> Galeis is best explained as depending upon tegimenta facere, rather than upon facere alone; liberis, as depending upon divites esse volumus, and rêi upon testis est.
  - 3 Literally, to do enough for them.
- Hostibus does not depend at all upon conspectum, but upon the entire predicate, in conspectum vinerat.

ENEMY). Cie. Caesari ad pedés proicere, to cast at the feet of Caesar (lit., to Caesar, at the feet). Caesa. Mihi horror membra quatit, a shudder shakes my timbs. Verg. Urbi fundamenta jacere, to lay the foundations of (for) the city. Liv.

NOTE 3.—The Dative is sometimes very loosely connected with the predicate, merely designating the person with reference to whom the statement is true:

To illi pater es, you are a father to him. Tac. Tridui iter expeditis erat, it was a journey of three days for light-armed soldiers. Liv. Est urbe égréssis tumulus, there is a mound as you go out of the city.\(^1\) Verg.

5. WITH IMPERSONAL PASSIVE.—Verbs which admit only an *Indirect Object* in the Active are *Impersonal* in the Passive, but they may retain the Dative:

Hostibus resistunt, they resist the enemy. Caes. His sententiis resistitur, resistence is offered to these opinions. Caes. No mihi noceant, that they may not injure me. Cie. Mihi nihil noceti potest, no injury can be done to me (lit., injury can be done to me not at all). Cie.

- 385. WITH Special Verbs.—The Dative of the Indirect Object is used with many verbs which require special mention. Thus—
- I. With verbs signifying to benefit or injure, please or displease, command or obey, serve or resist, and the like:

Sibī prōsunt, they benefit themselves. Cie. Nocère alterī, to injure another. Cie. Zēnōnī placuit, it pleased Zeno. Cie. Displicet Tullō, it displeases Tullus. Liv. Cupiditātibus imperāre, to command desires. Cie. Deō pārēre, to obey God. Cie. Rēgī servīre, to serve the king. Cie. Hostibus resistere, to resist the enemy. Caes.

II. With verbs signifying to indulge, spare, pardon, threaten, believe, persuade, and the like:

Sibi indulgēre, to indulge one's self. Cie. Vitae parcere, to spare life. Nep. Mihi īgnōseere, to pardon me. Cie. Minitāns patrice, threatening his country. Liv. Īrāseī amīeis, to be anary with friends. Cie. Mihi crēde, believe me. Cie. Iis persnādēre, to persuade them. Caes.

Note 1.—Some verbs of this class take the Accusative:  $dilect\bar{o}$ ,  $juv\bar{o}$ ,  $bied\bar{o}$ ,  $offend\bar{o}$ , etc.:

Marium jūvit, he helped Marius. Nep. Non me fama delectat, fame does not delight me. Cic.

Note 2.-For fido and confido with the Ablative, see 425, 1, 1), note.

Note 3.-The force of the Dative is often found only by attending to the strict mean-

1 Other examples are: A Pylis cunti loco alto siti sunt, they are situated in an elerated place as you come (lit., to one coming) from Pylae. Liv. Descendentibus inter duos lucos, as you descend (lit., to those descending) between the two grores. Liv. Exscendentibus at templum maceria erat, there was an enclosure as you ascended to the temple. Liv. In universum aestimanti plus penes peditem roboris est, to make a general estimate (lit., to one making, etc.), there is more strength in the infantry. Tac. ing of the verb;  $n\bar{u}b\bar{o}$ , 'to marry' (strictly, to veil one's self, as the bride for the bride-groom); medeor, 'to cure' (to administer a remedy to);  $sutisfaci\bar{o}$ , 'to satisfy' (to do enough for), etc.

1. Some verbs admit either the Accusative or the Dative, but with a difference of meaning:

Cavere aliquem, to ward off some one; cavere alicui, to care for some one.

Consulere aliquem, to consult, etc.; alieui, to consult for, etc.

Metuere, timere aliquem, to fear; alieui, to fear FOR.

Prospicere, providere aliquid, to foresee; alicui, to provide FOR,

Temperare, moderari aliquid, to govern, direct; alicui (of things), to restrain, put a check upon; temperare alicui (of persons), to spare:

Hunc tû eavêtê, be on your guard against this one (lit., ward him off). Hor. Êr eavêre volê, I wish to care for him (i. e., to protect him). Cic. Perfidiam timêmus, we fear perfidy. Cic. Sibi timuerant, they had feared for themselves, Caes.

Note.—Dare litter as ad aliquem means to address a letter to some one; but dare litter a salicul generally means to deliver a letter to one as a carrier of messenger;

Litterae mihî ad Catilinam datae sunt, a letter addressed to Catiline was delivered to me. Cic.

2. A Dative rendered from occurs with a few verbs of differing, dissenting, repelling, taking away, etc.:

Differe euivis, to differ from any one. Nep. Sibi dissentire, to dissent from himself. Cie. Somnum mihi adimere, to take sleep from me. Cie.

Note.—For the *Poetical Dative*, see 4, below; and for the *Ablative* with verbs of Separation or Difference, see 413.

3. A Dative rendered with occurs with misceō, admisceō, etc., and sometimes with faciō:

Severitätem miseère comitati, to unite severity with affability. Liv. Quid huic homini facias, what are you to do with (to) this man? Cie. See 4 below.

- 4. Dative in Poetry.—In the poets and in late prose-writers, the Dative is used much more freely than in classical prose. Thus it occurs with more or less frequency with the following classes of verbs:
- 1) With verbs denoting Motion or Direction—for the Accusative with ad or in:

Multõs demittimus Orco (for ad or in Orcum), 'we send many down to Orcus. Verg. Caelo (for ad caelum) palmäs tetendit, he extended his hands toward heaven. Verg. It clamor caelo, the shout goes to heaven. Verg. See also 392, I.

2) With verbs denoting Separation or Difference 2—instead of the Ablative with ab or dē, or the Accusative with inter:

Sölstitium pecori (for à pecore) défendite, keep off the heat from the flock. Verg. Scurrae distabit amicus, a friend will differ from a jester. Hor. Serta capiti delapsa, garlands fallen from his head. Verg.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Many other verbs take different constructions with different meanings; see cedo, convenio, cupio, deficio, doleo, maneo, pareo, peto, solro, and volo in the Dictionary.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Thus with arceō, absum, differō, diesentiō, dissideō, dīstō, etc.; see Dictionary:

3) With verbs denoting Union, Comparison, Contention, and the like instead of the Ablative with cum, or the Accusative with inter:

Miscet? ciris, he mingles with the Men. Verg. Concurrere hosti (for cum hoste), to meet the enemy. Ov. Solus this certat, he alone contends with you. Verg. Placitone pugnābis amori, with you contend with acceptable love? Verg.

4) In still other instances, especially in expressions of Place:

Haeret lateri (for in latere) arundó, the arrow sticks in her side. Verg. Ärdet spex capiti, the helmet gleams upon his head. Verg.

386. Dative with Compounds.—The Dative is used with many verbs compounded with—

ad, ante, con, dē, in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super:

Adsum anīcīs, I am present with MY FRIENDS. Cic. Omnībus antestāre, to surpass all. Cic. Terrīs cohaeret, it cleaves to the Earth. Sen. Hǒc Caesarī dēfuit, this failed (was wanting to) Caesar. Caes. Voluptātī inhaerēre, to be connected with pleasure. Cic. Interfuit pūgnae, he participated in the battle. Nep. Cōnsiliīs obstāre, to oppose plans. Nep. Lībertātī opēs postferre, to saerifice wealth to liberty. Liv. Populō praesunt, they rule the people. Cic. Tibǐ prōsunt, they are profitable to you. Cic. Succumbere dolōribus, to yield to sorrows. Cic. Superfuit patrī, he survived his father. Liv.

1. Transitive Verbs thus compounded admit both the  $\Lambda$ ceusative and the Dative:

Si opposuit hostibus, he opposed himself to the enemy. Cic. Capiti subdingerat ensem, she had removed my sword from my head. Verg. See also Libertiti opis posiferre, above,

2 Compounds of other Prepositions, especially of ab, ex, and eircum, sometimes admit the Dative; while several of the compounds specified under the rule admit the Ablative with or without a preposition  $\S$  3

Sibő libertátem abjúdicat, he deprires himself (sentences himself to the loss) of liberty, Cls. Miri timbrem éripe, free me from fear (lit, snatch away fear for me), Cle. Págná assuéscére, to be accustomed to (trained in) buttle. Liv. Dieta eum factis compânere, to compure words with deeds. Sall.

3. Motion on Direction.—Compounds expressing mere motion or direction generally take the Accusative with or without a preposition:

¹ Thus, with e-pulō, jungo, misceō, admisceō, permisceō, nectō, sociō, etc.; certō, contendō, luctor. pāgnō, etc.

<sup>2</sup> Misceo, as a transitive verb, occurs with the Accusative and Dative even in classical prose; see 385, 3; also 371, III., note 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> See assuésco, assuéfació, acquiésco, coeō, cohaereo, collūdo, commúnico, compōno, concordo, confero, confligo, congruo, conjungo, consentio, consto, insisto, insideo, insum, and interdico, in the Dictionary. See also Dragger, I., pp. 406-426

See accido, accido, addo, adferó, adhaeresco, adhibeo, adjungó, adnitor, adserbo, adsum, illado, incido, incumbo, incurro, infero, offero, oppono, in the Dictionary

Adire ārās, to approach the altars Cie. Ad consulés adire, to go to the consuls. Cie. In bellum insistit, he devotes himself to the war. Caes. Ad omne periculum opponitur, he is exposed to every peril. Cie.

4. Several compounds admit either the Accusative or the Dative without any special difference of meaning:

Munitiunibus adjacent, they are near the fortifications. Tac. Mare illud adjacent, they are near that sea. Nep. Quibus timor incesserat, whom fear had ceized. Sall. Timor patres incessit, fear seized the fathers. Liv.

5. Many compounds which usually take the Accusative or the Ablative with a preposition in classical prose, admit a Dative in poetry:

Quid contendat hirundō cyenīs (for cum eyenīs), why should the swallow contend with swans? Lucr. Contendis Homērō, you contend with Homes. Prop. Animis illābī nostrīs (for in animōs nostrōs), to sink into our minds. Verg.

Note.—Instead of the compounds of ad, ante, etc., the poets sometimes use in the came sense the simple verbs 2 with the Dative:

Qui haescrat (= adhaeserat)  $\bar{E}vandr\bar{o}$ , who had joined himself to Evander. Verg. Ponis (= appinis)  $mih\bar{i}$  porcum, you offer me (place defore me) suine's flesh. Martial.

# 387. The Dative of the Possessor is used with the verb sum:

Mihī est noverca, I have (there is to me) a stepmother. Verg. Fonti nomen Arethusa est, the fountain has (there is to the fountain) the name Arethusa. Cie. But—

Note 1.—The Dative of the Name as well as of the possessor is common in expressions of naming:  $n\tilde{e}men\ est,\ n\tilde{e}men\ datur,\ etc.$ :

Scipioni Āfricānō cognomen fuit, Scipio had the surname Africanus. Sall. Here Africānō, instead of being in apposition with cognomen, is put by attraction in apposition with Scipioni.

Note 2.—The Genitive of the Name dependent upon nomen occurs:

Nomen Mercuri est mihi, I have the name of Mercury, Plant.

Note 3.—By a Greek Idiom, volêns, cupiêns, or invitus sometimes accompanies the Dative of the possessor:

Quibus bellum volentibus erat, who liked the war (lit., to whom wishing the war was). Tac.

# 388. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is used with the *Gerundive*, and with the *Passive Periphrastic Conjugation*:

¹ Such are adjaceō, adūlor, antecēdō, antecō, cōnītor, dēspērō (also with dē), illūdō, incēdō, īnsultō, invādō, praecurrō, praestō, praestolor.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Thus ferö for adferö, pröferö; haereö for adhaereö; pönö for appönö, dēpönö, impönö, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The Dative with est usually expresses simple possession or ownership, like the English have. Habeo is sometimes used in the same sense, but it more commonly expresses some of the shades of meaning denoted by hold, keep, regard, and the like: areem habere, 'to hold the citadel'; aliquem in obsidione habere, 'to hold or keep one in siege'; pro hoste habere, 'to regard as an enemy.'

Proelia conjugibus loquenda, battles for women to talk about.\(^1\) Hor. Suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, every one has his own trouble to bear, or must bear his own trouble. Cic.

Note,—Instead of the Dative of the Apparent Agent, the Ablative with  $\bar{a}$  or ab is sometimes used:

Quibus est ā vobis 2 consulendum, for whom measures must be taken by you. Cic.

1. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is sometimes used with the compound tenses of passive verbs:

Mihl consilium captum jam diù est, I have a plan long since formed.1 Cic.

Note.—Habeō with the Perfect Participle has the same force as est mini with the Participle:

Bellum habuit Indictum, he had a war (already) declared. Cie.

- 2. The Real Agent, with Passive verbs, is in classical prose denoted by the Ablative with a or ab; 3 see 415, l.
- 3. The Dative is used with the tenses for incomplete action, to designate the person who is at once Agent and Indirect Object, the person by whom and FOR (TO) whom the action is performed:

Honesta bonis viris quaeruntur, honorable things are sought by good men (i. e., for themselves). Cie.

4. In the Poets, the Dative is often used for the *Ablative* with  $\bar{a}$  or ab, to designate simply the agent of the action:

Non intellegor ülli, I am not understood by any one. Ovid. Regnāta arva Saturno, lands ruled by Saturn. Verg.

389. The ETHICAL DATIVE, denoting the person to whom the thought is of special interest, is often introduced into the Latin sentence:

At tibi venit ad më, but lo, he comes to me. Cie. Ad illa mihi intendat animum, let him, I pray, direct his attention to those things. Liv. Quō mihi abis, whither are you going, pray? Verg. Quid mihi Celsus agit, what is my Celsus doing? Hor.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Dative with the Gerundive, whether alone or in the Periphrastic Conjugation, designates the person who has the work to do; while with the compound tenses of passive verbs it designates the person who has the work already done.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Here  $\vec{a}$   $\vec{v}(\vec{b})s$  is necessary, to distinguish the Agent from the Indirect Object, quibus; but the Ablative with  $\vec{a}$  or ab is sometimes used when this necessity does not exist.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Dative with the Gerundive is best explained as the Dative of Possessor or of Indirect Object. Thus, suum cuique incommodum est means 'every one has his trouble' (cuique, Dative of Possessor); and suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, 'every one has his trouble to bear.' So too, mihi consilium est, 'I have a plan'; mihi consilium captum est, 'I have a plan (already) formed.'

<sup>4</sup> Compare the following from Shakespeare: 'He plucked me ope his doublet and offered them his throat to cut.' Julius Caesar, Act I., Scene II. 'It ascends me into the brain.' Henry IV., Part II., Act IV., Scene III. 'He presently steps me a little higher.' Henry IV., Part I., Act IV., Scene III.

NOTE 1.—The ETHICAL DATIVE is always a personal pronoun.

NOTE 2. - The ETHICAL DATIVE occurs with volo and with interjections:

Quid rôbis vultis, what do you wish, intend, mean? Liv. Avăritia quid sibi vult, what does avarice mean? or what object can it have? Cie. Ei mihī, ah me! Verg. Vae tibi, woe to you. Ter. See 381, note 3, 3).

#### RULE XIII.-Two Datives-To which and For which.

390. Two Datives—the object to which and the object or exp for which—occur with a few verbs:

#### I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Malŏ est hominibus avāritia, avarice is an evil to men (lit., is to men for an evil). Cic. Est mihō cūrac, it is a care to me. Cic. Domus dēdecorī dominō fit, the house becomes a disgrace to its owner. Cic. Vēnit Atticīs auxiliō, he came to the assistance of the Athenians. Nep. Hŏe illī tribuēbātur īgnāviae, this was imputed to him as cowardice (for cowardice). Cic. Eīs subsidiō missus est, he was sent to them as aid. Nep.

# II. With Transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Quinque cohortés castris praesidió reliquit, he left five cohorts for the defence of the camp (lit., to the camp for a defence). Caes. Periclés agrós suos dono réi publicae dedit, Pericles gave his lands to the republic as a present (lit., for a present). Just.

Note 1.—The verbs which take two Datives are-

1) Intransitive verbs signifying to be, become, go, and the like: sum, fiō, etc.

2) Transitive verbs signifying to give, send, leave, impute, regard, choose, and the lists: do, dino, divo, habeo, mitto, reliaquo, tribuo, verto, etc. These take in the Active two Datives with an Aceusative; but in the Fassive two Datives only, as the direct object of the Active becomes the subject of the Fassive; see 464.

Note 2.—One of the Datives is often omitted, or its place supplied by a predicate noun: Ea sunt *ūsuī*, these things are of use (for use). Caes. Tā illī pater es, you are a father to mm. Tac. See 362.2, note 3.

Note 3.—With audiens two Datives sometimes occur, dieto dependent upon audiens, and a personal Dative dependent upon dieto audiens, and sometimes dieto oboediens is used like dieto audiens:

Dictō sum audiëns, I am listening to the word. Plaut. Nöbīs dictō audiëns est, he is obedient to us. Cic. Magistrō dictō obocdiëns, obedient to his muster. Plaut.

# RULE XIV.—Dative with Adjectives.

# 391. With adjectives the OBJECT TO WHICH the quality is directed is put in the Dative:

Patriae solum omnibus cārum est, the soil of their country is dear to all. Cic. Id aptum est tempori, this is adapted to the time. Cic. Omnī actātī mors est commūnis, death is common to every age. Cic. Canis similis lupō

est, a dog is similar to a wolf. Cic. Naturae accommodatum, adapted to nature. Cic. Gracciae utile, useful to Greece. Nep.

1. Adjectives which take the Dative are chiefly those signifying-

Agreeable, easy, friendly, like, near, necessary, suitable, subject, useful, together with others of a similar or opposite meaning, and verbals in bilis.

- II. Other Constructions sometimes occur where the learner would expect the Dative:
- 1. The Accusative with a Preposition: (1) in, ergā, adversus, with adjectives signifying friendly, hostile, etc., and (2) ad, to denote the object or end for which, with adjectives signifying useful, suitable, inclined, etc.:

Perindulgins in pitrem, very kind to his father. Cic. Multas ad res perutilis, very useful for many things. Cic. Pronus ad luctum, inclined to mourning. Cic.

2. The Accusative without a Preposition with propior, proximus:

Propior montem, nearer the Mountain. Sall. Proximus mare, nearest to the sea. Caes. Sec 433 and 437.

3. The Ablative with or without a Proposition:

Alienum ā rītā meā, foreign to my life. Ter. Homine alienissimum, most foreign to or from man. Cie. Ēi eum Rōseiō commūnis, common to lim and Roseius (with Roseius). Cie.

4. The Genitive: (1) with adjectives used substantively; (2) with adjectives meaning like, 2 unlike, 2 near, belonging to, and a few others:

Amicissimus hominum, the best friend of the Men (i. e., the most friendly to them). Cic. Alexandrī similis, like Alexander (i. e., in character). Cic. Dispar suī, unlike itself. Cic. Cūjus parīs, like whom. Cic. Populi Rōmānī est propria libertās, liberty is characteristic of the Roman people. Cic.

Note 1.- Idem occurs with the Dative, especially in the poets:

Idem facit occidenti, he does the same as to kill, or as he who kills. Hor.

Note 2.—For the Genitive and Dative with an adjective, see 399, 1., note 1.

### RULE XV.-Dative with Nouns and Adverbs.

- 392. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs:
  - I. With a few nouns from verbs which take the Dative:

Jūstitia est obtemperātič i lēgibus, justice is obedience to laws. Cie.

¹ Such are accommodātus, aequālis, ali`nus, amīcus, inimīcus, aptus, cārus, facilis, difficilis, fidēlis, înfidēlis, finitimus, grātus, ingrātus, idēneus, jūcundus, injūcundus, molestus, necessārius, nātus, īgnātus, norius, pār, dispar, perniciāsus, propinquus, proprius, salūtāris, similis, dissimilis, diversus, rīcīnus, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Genitive is used especially of likeness and unlikeness in character.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> As similis, dissimilis, assimilis, consimilis, par, dispar; adfinis, finitimus, propringuus; proprius, sacer, commonis; altinus, contrarius, insuitus, etc.

<sup>4</sup> From obtempero, which takes the Dative.

Sibī respōnsiŏ, a reply to himself. Cic. Opulentō hominī servitūs dūra est, serving (servitude to) a rich man is hard. Plaut. Facilis dēscēnsus¹ Avernō, easy is the descent to Avernus. Verg.

II. With a few adverbs from adjectives which take the Dative:

Congruenter <sup>2</sup> nātūrae vīvere, to live in accordance with nature. Cic. 'Sibī convenienter dīcere, to speak consistently with himself. Cic. Prōximē hostium castrīs, next to the camp of the enemy. Caes.

Note 1.—In rare instances the Dative occurs with a few nouns and adverbs not included in the rule:

Tribûnîcia potestăs, mûnîmentum *lībertātī, tribunician power, a defence* for liberty. Liv. Huie ūnā = ūnā cum hōe, with this one. Verg.

Note 2.- For the Dative of Gerundives with official names, see 544, note 3.

Note 3.—For the Dative with interjections, see 381, note 3; 389, note 2.

#### SECTION VI.

#### GENITIVE.

393. The Genitive in its ordinary use corresponds to the English possessive, or the objective with of, and expresses various adjective relations.<sup>3</sup>

Note.—But the Genitive, especially when objective (396, III.), is sometimes best rendered to, for, from, in, on account of, etc.:

394. The Genitive is used chiefly to qualify or limit nouns and adjectives, though it also occurs with verbs and adverbs.

#### RULE XVI.-Genitive with Nouns.

395. Any noun, not an appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive:

Catōnis ōrātiōnēs, Cato's orations. Cic. Castra hostium, the camp of the enemy. Liv. Mors Hamilcaris, the death of Hamilcar. Liv. Deūm metus, the fear of the gods. Liv. Vir cōnsiliī māgnī, a man of great prudence. Caes. Pars populī, a part of the people. Cic.

From descendo, which admits the Dative in poetry; see 385, 4, 1).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> From congruens, which takes the Dative.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The Genitive has nearly the force of an adjective, and means simply of or belonging to. Thus, regis, equivalent to regius, means of or belonging to a king. On the origin and use of the Genitive, see Hübschmann. p. 106; Merguet, p. 69; Holzweissig, pp. 26 and 73; Draeger, I., pp. 447-493; Roby, II., pp. 116-137.

<sup>4</sup> Doubtless originally it limited only nouns and adjectives.

NOTE 1 .- For the Appositive, see 363.

NOTE 2 .- An ADJECTIVE is sometimes used for the Genitive :

Bellica glòria = belli glòria, the glory of war. Cic. Conjunx Hectorea = conjunx Hectores, the wife of Hector, Verg. Pūgna Marathōnia, the battle of Marathon. Cic. Diāna Ephesia, Diana of Ephesus, Cic. Sec 393, foot-note.

NOTE 3 .- For the Predicate Genitive, see 401.

Note 4. - For special uses of the Dative, see 384, 4, note 2.

396. The qualifying Genitive may be-

I. A Possessive Genitive, designating the author and the possessor:

Xenophontis libri, the books of Xenophon. Cic. Fanum Neptuni, the temple of Neptune. Nep.

II. A Subjective Genitive, designating the subject or agent of the action, feeling, etc.:

Serpentis morsus, the bite of the serpent. Cic. Pavor Numidarum, the fear of the Numidians. Liv.

Note.—The Possessive Pronoun is regularly used for the Subjective Genitive of Personal pronouns:

Mea domus, my house. Cic. Fama tua, your fame. Cic.

III. An Objective Genitive, designating the object toward which the action or feeling is directed:

Amor gloriae, the love of glory. Cic. Memoria malorum, the recollection of sufferings. Cic. Deum metus, the fear of the gods. Liv.

NOTE 1.—For the OBJECTIVE GENITIVE, the Accusative with in, erga, or adversus is sometimes used:

Odium in hominum genus, hatred of or toward the race of men. Cic. Ergā võs amor, love toward you. Cic.

Note 2.—The Possessive occurs, though rarely, for the Objective Genitive of Personal pronouns:

Tua fiducia, reliance on you. Cic.

IV. A Partitive Genetive, designating the whole of which a part is taken:

Quis vestrum, which of you? Cic. Vitae pars, a part of life. Cic. Omnium sapientissimus, the wis st of all men. Cic.

V. A DESCRIPTIVE GENITIVE, also called a GENITIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC, designating character or quality, including value, price, size, weight, age, etc.

Vir māximī consiliī, a man of very great prudence. Nep. Mitis ingenii juvenis, a youth of mild disposition. Liv. Vēstis māgnī pretii, a garment of great value. Cic. Exsilium decem annorum, an ecile of ten years. Nep. Corona purvī ponderis, a crown of small weight. Liv. Sec 404.

<sup>1</sup> It will be found convenient thus to characterize the different uses of the Genitive by the relation actually existing between the words united by it, though that special relation is not expressed by the case itself, but merely suggested by the meaning of the words thus united.

Note 1.—The Descriptive Genitive must be accompanied by an adjective or some other modifier, unless it be a compound containing a modifier; as  $h\bar{\nu}jusmod\bar{\imath} = h\nu jusmod\bar{\imath}$ ;  $tr\bar{\imath}du\bar{\imath}$ , from  $tr\bar{\imath}sdi\bar{\imath}s$ ;  $bidu\bar{\imath}$ , from duo (bis)  $di\bar{\imath}s$ .

Note 2.—For id genus = ijus generis, omne genus = omnis generis, see 378, 2.

Note 3 .- For the Descriptive Ablative, see 419, II., with note.

VI. An Appositional Genitive, having the general force of an Appositive (363):

Virtus continentiae, the virtue of self-control. Cic. Oppidum Antiochiae, the city of Antioch. Cic. Tellus Ausoniae, the land of Ausonia. Verg.

- 397. The Partitive Genitive designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used—
- 1. With pars, nēmō, nihil; with nouns of quantity, number, weight, etc., as modius, legiō, talentum; and with any nouns used partitively:

Equorum pars, a part of the horses. Liv. Nihil novi (441, 2), nothing New (of New). Cic. Nihil reliqui (441, 2), nothing left (lit., of the rest). Sall. Medimnum tritici, a bushel of wheat. Cic. Pecaniae talentum, a talent of money. Nep. Quorum Gaius, of whom Gaius. Cic.

With Numerals used substantively: 1

Quōrum quattuor, four of whom. Liv. Equitum centum, a hundred of the cavalry. Curt. Sapientum octāvus, the eighth of the wise men. Hor. Ūnus pontium, one of the bridges. Cacs.

Note. HI good prose the Genitive is not used when the two words refer to the same number of objects, even though of be used in English:

Qui (not qui rum) due supersunt, of whom two survive. Cic. Omnes homines, all men. Cic. But see p. 209, note 4, with foot-note.

3. With Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively, especially with comparatives, superlatives, and neuters:  $^2$ 

Quis vestrūm, which of you? Cic. Num quidnam novī, is there anything new (of New)? Cic. Consulum alter, one of the consuls. Liv. Prior hōrum, the former of these. Nep. Gallōrum fortissimī, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes. Id temporis, that (of) time. Cic. Multum operae, much (of) service. Cic.

NOTE 1.—Pronouns and adjectives, except neuters, when used with the Partitive Genitive, take the gender of the Genitive, unless they agree directly with some other word; see consulum alter, above.

Note 2.— Uterque, 'each,' both,' is generally used as an adjective; but when it is combined in the singular number with another pronoun, it usually takes that pronoun in the Genitive:

Uterque exercitus, each army. Caes Quae utraque, both of which. Sall. Utrique nostrum 3 gratum, acceptable to each of us. Cie.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Numerals used adjectively agree with their neuns: mille hominës, 'a thousand men'; mille hominum, 'a thousand of men'; multi hominës, 'many men'; multi hominum, 'many of the men.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> As hốc, id, illud, quid; multum, plus, plūrimum, minus, minimum, tantum, quantum, etc.

a A Partitive Genitive, because a pronoun.

Note 3.—For the Partitive Genitive, the Accusative with inter or anto, or the Ablative with ex. dé, or in, is sometimes used:

Inter reges opulentissimus, the most wealthy of (among) kings. Sen. Unus ex viris, one of the heroes. Cie. Unus 1 de legatis, one of the lieutenants. Cie.

NOTE 4.—Poets and late prose writers make a very free use of the Partitive Genitive after adjectives:

Sancta deārum, holy goddess. Enn. Sancta deōrum, O holy god. Verg. Festős dlērum, festal days. Hor. Levēs cohortium, the light-armed cohorts. Tac. Inclutus philosophōrum, the renormed philosophōr. Just. Rēliquum diēi, the rest of the day. Liv. Reliquum noctis, the rest of the night. Tac. Strāta viārum = strātae viac, paved streets. Verg. Vāna rērum = vānae rēs. rain things. Hor. Hominum cūnctī, all of the men.<sup>2</sup> Ovid. Cūncta terrārum, all lands. Hor. See also 438, 5.

Note 5.—The Neuter of pronouns and adjectives with the Partitive Genitive is sometimes used of persons:

Quid hôc est hominis, what kind of a man is this? Plaut. Quidquid erat patrum reos diceres, you would have said that all the senatoes (lit., whatever there was of fathers) were accused. Liv. Quid hūc tantum hominum incedunt, why are so many men (so much of men) coming hither? Plaut.

4. The Partitive Genitive also occurs with a few adverbs used substantively: 3

Armorum adfatim, abundance of arms. Liv. Lucis nimis, too much (of) light. Ovid. Sapientiae parum, little (of) wisdom. Sall. Partim copiarum, a portion of the forces. Liv. Quod ojus facere potest, as far as (what of it) he is able to do. Cic. Nusquam gentium, nowhere in the world. Cic. Huc arrogantiae, to this degree of insolence. Tac. Maxime omnium, most of all. Cic.

398. GENITIVE IN SPECIAL CONSTRUCTIONS.—Note the following:

1. The Governing Word is often omitted. Thus-

Aedes, templum, discipulus, homo, juvenis, puer, etc.; causa, grātia, and indeed any word when it can be readily supplied:

Ad Jovis (sc. aedem), near the temple of Jupiter. Liv. Hannibal annorum novem (sc. puer), Hannibal, a boy nine years of age. Liv. Aberant bidul (sc. viam or spatium), they were two days' journey distant. Cic. Conferre vitam Treboni cum Dolābellae (sc. vitā), to compare the life of Trebonius with that of Dolabella. Cic.

NOTE 1.—The governing word is generally omitted when it has been expressed before another Genitive, as in the last example; and then the second Genitive is sometimea attracted into the case of the governing word:

<sup>)</sup> Cnus is generally followed by the Ablative with  $\epsilon x$  or  $d\hat{\epsilon}$ , but sometimes by the Genitive,

<sup>2</sup> Observe that in this case the partitive idea has entirely disappeared, and that the construction is partitive in form, but not in sense.

As with adverbs of Quantity—abunde, adfatim, nimis, parum, partim, quoud, satis, etc.; of Place—hic, hic, niisquam, nbi, etc.; of Extext, Degree, etc.—eō, hic, quō; and with superlatives. As adverbs are substantives or adjectives in origin, it is not strange that they are thus used with the Genitive.

Nătūra hominis bēluīs (for bēluārum nūtūrae) antecēdit, the nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes. Cic.

Note 2.—In many cases where we supply son, daughter, husband, wife, the ellipsis is only apparent, the Genitive depending directly on the proper noun expressed:

Hasdrubal Giscônis, Gisco's Hasdrubal, or Hasdrubal the son of Gisco. Liv. Hectoris Andromache, Hector's Andromache, or Andromache the wife of Hector. Verg.

2. Two Generally subjective, the other either objective or descriptive:

Memmi odium potentiae, Memmius's hatred of power. Sall. Helvētiörum injūriae populi Romānī, the wrongs done by the Helvetii to the Roman people. Caes. Superiorum dierum Sabīnī eunetātiŏ, the delay of Sabinus during (lit., of) the preceding days. Caes.

3. A Genitive sometimes accompanies a Possessive, especially the Genitive of *ipsc*, sölus, ūnus, or omnis:

Tua ipsius amicitia, your own friendship. Cic. Meum sõlius peceätum, my fault alone. Cic. Nõmen meum absentis, my name in my absence. Cic.

4. The Genitive is used with *instar*, 'likeness,' 'image,' in the sense of as large as, of the size of, equal to:

Instar montis equus, a horse of the size of a mountain. Verg.

5. The Genitive is used with prīdiē, postrīdiē, ergō, and tenus: 2

Prīdiē ējus dieī, on the day before that day. Caes. Postrīdiē ējus dieī, on the day after that day. Caes. Virtūtis ergō, on account of virtue. Cic. Lumbūrum tenus, as far as the loins. Cic. For tenus with the Ablative, see 434.

## RULE XVII.-Genitive with Adjectives.

399. Many adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning:

Avidus laudis, desirous of praise. Cic. Ōtiī cupidus, desirous of leisure. Liv. Conscius conjūrātionis, cognizata of the conspiracy. Sall. Amāns suī virtūs, nirtue fond of itself. Cic. Efficiens voluptātis, productive of pleasure. Cic. Gloriae memor, mindful of glory. Liv.

Note.—This Genitive corresponds to the Objective Genitive with nouns:

Amor glóriae, the love of glory. Cie. Appetens glóriae, desirous of (eager for) glory. Cie.

- I. The Genitive is used with adjectives denoting-
- 1. Desire of Aversion: 3

<sup>1</sup> Ipsius may be explained as agreeing with tui (of you), involved in tua, and solius and absentis as agreeing with mei (of me), involved in meum.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> These words are strictly nouns, and, as such, govern the Genitive. Prīdiē and postrīdiē are Locatives; ergō is an Ablative, and tenus, an Accusative; see 304; 307, note 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Such are—(1) avidus, cupidus, studičsus; fastīdičsus, etc.; (2) gnārus, īgnārus, consultus, conscius, īnscius, nescius, certus, incertus; providus, prūdēns, imprū-

Contentionis enpidus, desirons of contention. Cic. Sapientiae studiosus, etudious of (student of) wis lom. Cic. Terrae fastidiosus, weary of the land. Hor.

2. Knowledge, Skill, Recollection, with their contraries: 1

Réi gnarus, acquainted with the thing. Cie. Prūdēns rēi militaris, skilled in military science. Nep. Peritus belli, skilled in war. Nep. Insuētus laboris, unaccustomed to labor. Caes. Gloriae memor, mindful of glory. Liv. Immemor beneficii, forgetful of kindness. Cic.

3. Participation, Guilt, Fulness, Mastery, with their contraries:1

Adfinis eulpae, sharing the fault. Cic. Rationis particeps, endowed with (sharing) reason. Cic. Rationis expers, destitute of reason. Cic. Manifestus rerum capitalium, convicted of capital crimes. Sall. Vita metas plena, a life full of fear. Cic. Mei potens sum, I am master of myself. Liv. Virtutis compos, capable of virtue. Cic.

Note 1 .- The Genitive and Dative sometimes occur with the same adjective :

Mens sibi conscia recti, a mind conscious to itself of rectitude. Verg. Sibi conscii culpae, conscious to themselves of fault. Cic.

Note 2.—For the Genitive with adjectives used substantively, and with adjectives meaning like, unlike, near, belonging to, etc., see 391, 11., 4.

Note 3 .- For the Genitive with dignus and indignus, see 421, note 3.

II. The Genitive is used with Vereals in ax, and with Present Participles used adjectively:

Virtutum ferix, productive of virtues. Liv. Tenax propositi, tenacious (steadfast) of purpose. Hor. Amins patriae, fond of his country.<sup>2</sup> Cie. Engiens laboris, shunning labor. Caes.

III. In the poets and in late prose writers, especially in Tacitus, the Genitive is used—

1. With adjectives of almost every variety of signification, simply to define their application:  $^3$ 

Aevī matūrus, mature in age. Verg. Ingēns vīrium, mighty in strength. Sall. Sērī studiērum, late in studies. Her. Integer aevī, unimpairel in age (i. e., in the bloom of youth). Verg. Aegeranimī, 4 ag/ided in spirit. Liv. Auxius animī, 4 anxious in mind. Sall. Fidens animī, confident in spi it. Verg.

2. With a few adjectives, to denote course:

Lactus laborum, pleased with the labors. Verg. Notus animi paterni, distinguished for paternal affection. Hor.

dėns; peritus, imperitus, rudis, insuitus; memor, immemor, etc; (3) adfinis, consors, exsers, expers, particeps, manifestus, noxius; plėnus, fertilis, rejertus, egėnus, inops, vacuus; polėns, impolėns, compos, etc.

1 See foot-note 3, page 210.

2 Amāns patriae, 'fond of his country,' represents the affection as permanent and constant; whereas the participial construction, amāns patriam, 'loving his country,' designates a particular instance or act.

<sup>3</sup> Like the Ablative of Specification; see 424. For vôti reus, 'bound to fulfil a

'vow,' see 410, III., note 2,

\* Probably a Locative in origin, as animie is used in similar instances in the plural.

400. Adjectives which usually take the Genitive, sometimes admit other constructions:

#### 1. The DATIVE:

Manus subitis avidac, hands ready for sudden events. Tac. Insuetus moribus Romanis, unaccustomed to Roman manners. Liv. Facinori mens conscia, a mind conscious of crime. Cic. See 391.

#### 2. The Accusative with a preposition:

Insuetus ad pūgnam, unaccustomed to battle. Liv. Fertilis ad omnia, productive for all things. Plin. Avidus in novās res, eager for new things. Liv.

#### 3. The Ablative with or without a preposition:

Prūdēns in jūre cīvīlī, learned in ciril law. Cic. Hīs dē rēbus cōnscius, aware of these things. Cic. Vacuus de dēfensoribus, destitute of defenders. Caes. Cūrīs vacuus, free from cares. Cic. Refertus bonīs, replete with blessings. Cic. See 414, III.

#### RULE XVIII.-Predicate Genitive.

401. A noun predicated of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive:

Omnia hostium erant, all things belonged to the enemy.\(^1\) Liv. Senātus Hannibalis erat, the senate was Hannibal's (i. e., in his interest). Liv. Jūdicis est vērum sequī, to follow the truth is the duty of a Judge.\(^2\) Cic. Parvī pretiī est, it is of small value. Cic. Tyrus mare suae dicionis \(^3\) fēcit, Tyre brought the sea under (lit., made the sea of) her sway. Curt.

Note 1.—For a noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing, see 362; 373, 1.

Note 2.—A Predicate Generice is often nearly or quite equivalent to a *Predicate* adjective (360, note 1): hominis est = hūmānum est, 'it is the mark of a man,' 'is human'; stulti est = stultum est, 'it is foolish.' The Genitive is the regular construction in adjectives of one ending: sapiēntis est (for sapiēns est), 'it is the part of a wise man,' is wise.'

NOTE 3.—Possessive pronouns in agreement with the subject supply the place of the Predicate Genitive 4 of personal pronouns:

Est tuum (not tuī) vidēre, it is your duty to see Cic.

Note 4.—Aequī, bonī, and ržliquī occur as Predicate Genitives in such expressions as aequī facere, aequī bonīque facere, bonī consulere, 'to take in good part,' and ržliquī facere, 'to leave':

Acqui bonique facio, I take it in good part. Ter. Mîlites nibil reliqui victis feeere, the soldiers left nothing to the ranquished. Sall.

<sup>1</sup> Literally, were of the enemy, or were the enemy's.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Literally, is of A JUDGE.

<sup>3</sup> Here dicionis, denoting a different thing from mare, of which it is predicated, is out in the Genitive.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This is another illustration of the close relationship between a Predicate Genitive and a Predicate Adjective; see also note 2.

**402.** The Predicate Genitive is generally *Possessive* or *Descriptive*, rarely *Partitive*:

Hace hostium erant, these things were of (belonged to) the enemy. Liv. Est imperatoris superare, it is the duty of a commander to conquer. Caes. Summae facultatis est, he is (a man) of the highest ability. Cic. Opera magni fuit, the assistance was of great value. Nep. Fies nobilium fontium, you will become one of the noble fountains. Hor.

403. The Predicate Generally occurs most frequently with sum and fucio, but sometimes also with verbs of seeming, regarding, etc.:

Oram Romanae dicionis feeit, he brought the coast under (made the coast of) Roman rule. Liv. Hominis viditur, it seems to be the mark of a man. Cic. See also examples under 401.

Note.—Transitive verbs of this class admit in the active an Accusative with the Genitive, as in the first example.

**404.** The Predicate Generice of Price of Value is used with *sum* and with verbs of *valuing*:

Māgnī sunt tuae lītterae, your letters are of great value. Cic. Pūris esse, to be of greater value. Cic. Parvī pendere, to think lightly of. Sall. Auctoritātem tuam māgnī aestimo, I prize your authority highly. Cie.

NOTE 1.—With these verbs the Genitive of price or value is generally an adjective,2 as in the examples, but pretii is sometimes used;

Parvi pretii est, it is of little value. Cic.

Note 2.—Nihili and, in familiar discourse, a few other Genitives 3 occur:

Nihili facere, to take no account of, Cic. Non flocci pendere, not to care a straw (lock of wool) for. Plaut.

405. Tanti, quanti, plūris, and minoris are also used as GENITIVES OF PRICE with verbs of buying and selling: 4

Ēmit hortos tantī, he purchased the gardens at so great a price. Cic. Vēndo frumentum plūris, I sell grain at a higher price. Cic.

Note .- For the Ablative of price, see 422.

### RULE XIX.-Genitive with Special Verbs.

# 406. The Genitive is used—

I. With misereor and miseresco:

Miserēre labōrum, pity the labors. Verg. Miserēseite rēgis, pity the king. Verg.

<sup>1</sup> Facultitis and magni are Descriptive, but fontium is Partitive.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The following adjectives are so used: magni, parri, tanti, quanti; plūris, minoris; plūrimi, maximi, and minimi.

<sup>3</sup> As āssis, flocei, nauei, and pili.

Observe that verbs of buying and selling admit the Genitive of price only when one of these adjectives is used. In other cases they take the Ablative of price.

#### II. With recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor: 1

Meminit praeteritõrum, he remembers the past. Cic. Oblītus sum meī, I have jorgo'ten myself. Ter. Flāgitiörum recordārī, to recollect base deeds. Cic. Reminiscī virtūtis, to remember virtue. Caes.

#### III. With refert and interest:

Illorum refert, it concerns them. Sall. Interest omnium, it is the interest of all. Cic.

Note.—The expression, Venit in menten, 'it occurs to mind,' is sometimes construed with the Genitive and sometimes with the Nominative:

Venit mihî Platōnis in mentem, <sup>2</sup> the recollection of Plato comes to my mind, or I recollect Plato. Civ. Non venit in mentem pugna, does not the battle occur to your mind? Liv.

# 407. Verbs of REMEMBERING and FORGETTING often take the *Accusative* instead of the *Genitive*:

Memineram Paullum, I remembered Paullus. Cic. Triumphōs recordārī, to recall triumphs. Cic. Ea reminiscere, remember those things. Cic.

Note 1.—The Accusative is the common construction (1) with recordor and (2) with the other verbs, if it is a neuter pronoun or adjective, or designates an object remembered by a contemporary or an eye-witness.

Note 2.—The Ablative with de is rare:

Recordare de ceteris, bethink yourself of the others. Cic.

#### 408. The Construction with refert and interest is as follows:

- I. The Person interested is denoted—
- 1. By the Genitive, as under the rule.
- 2. By the Ablative Feminine of the Poss.ssive, This takes the place of the Genitive of personal pronouns:

Meā rēfert, it concerns me. Ter. Interest meā, it interests me. Cie.

3. By the *Dative*, or *Accusative with* or *without Ad*; but rarely, and chiefly with *refert*, which moreover often omits the person:

Quid refert viventi, what does it concern one living? Hor. Ad me refert, it concerns me. Plant.

II. The Subject of Importance, or that which involves the interest, is expressed by an Infinitive or Clause, or by a Neuter Pronoun:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Genitive with verbs of pityine, remembering, and forgetting probably depends upon the substantive idea contained in the verbs themselves; see Internal Object, 371, 1, 2. Thus, memini with the Accusative means I remember distinctly and fully, generally used of an eye-witness or of a contemporary; but with a Genitive, it means to have some recollection of. With refert the Genitive depends upon re, the Ablative of res, contained in the verb, and with interest it may be a Predicate Genitive, or may simply follow the analogy of refert.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> With renit in menten, the Genitive Platenis supplies the place of subject. It probably limits the pronominal subject already contained in renit, as in every Latin verb, it or that of Plato, the recollection of Plato.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> See foot-note I, above.

Interest omnium recté facere, to do right is the interest of all. Cic. Vestra hoc interest, this interests you. Cic.

III. The Degree of Interest is expressed by an Adverb, by a Neuter used adverbially, or by a Genitive of Value (401):

Vestrā māximē interest, it especially interests you. Cie. Quid nostrā rēfert, what does it concern us? Cie. Māgnī interest meā, it greatly interests me. Cie.

IV. The OBJECT OF END for which it is important is expressed by the Accusative with ad, rarely by the Dative:

Ad honorem nostrum interest, it is important for our honor. Cic.

#### RULE XX.-Accusative and Genitive.

- 409. The Accusative of the Person and the Geninve of the Thing are used with a few transitive verbs:
  - I. With verbs of reminding, admonishing:

Te amecitiae commonefacit, he reminds you of friendship. Cic. Milites necessitätis monet, he reminds the soldiers of the necessity. Ter.

II. With verbs of accusing, convicting, acquitting:

Viros sceleris arguis, you accuse men or crime. Cie. Levitatis cum convincere, to convict him of levity. Cic. Absolvere injuriae cum, to acquit him of injustice. Cic.

III. With miseret, paenitet, pudet, tacdet, and piget:

Eōrum nōs miseret, we pily them (it moves our pity of them). Cic. Cōnsiliī mē paenitet, I repeat of my purpose. Cic. Mē stultitiae meae pudet, I am ashamed of my folly. Cic.

Note 1.—The Genitive of the Thing designates, with verbs of reminding, etc., that to which the attention is called; with verbs of accusing, etc., the crime, charge; and with miseret, paenitet, etc., the object which produces the feeling; see examples.

NOTE 2.—The personal verbs included under this rule retain the Genitive in the Passire:

Accūsātus est proditionis, he was accused of treason. Nep.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Genitive with verbs of reminding and admonishing may be explained like that with verbs of pitying, remembering, and forgetting; see foot-note 1, page 214. With verbs of accusing, etc., the Genitive may also be explained in the same way, or may depend upon nömine, crimine, or jūdiciō, understood. Sometimes one of these nons is expressed; see 410, 11., 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Genitive with pueniti, puelet, etc., like that with renit in mentem (see 406, note, with foot-note), depends upon the impersonal subject contained in the verb. Thus, te have pudent means these things shame you, and me stullitine mean pudet, iterally rendered, means of my folly (i. e., the thought of it, or something about it), shames nee. The Genltive with miserest may be explained either in the same way, or like that with misereor; see foot-note 1, page 214.

Note 3.—In judicial language a few verbs not otherwise so used are treated as verbs of accusing. Thus  $condic\bar{o}$  occurs with the Genitive in Livy, I., 32.

410. Special Constructions.—The following deserve notice:

I. Verbs of Reminding and Admonishing sometimes take, instead of the Genitive—

1. The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely of a substantive, thus admitting two accusatives:

Illud me admones, you admonish me of that. Cic.

2. The Ablative with de-moneo and its compounds generally so:

De proelio vos admonui, I have reminded you of the battle. Cie.

II. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, sometimes take, instead of the Genitive of the crime, etc.—

1. The Genitive with nomine, crimine, jūdicio, or some similar word:

Nomine conjurationis damnati sunt, they were condemned on the charge of conspiracy. Cic. Innocentem judicio capitis arcessere, to arraign an innocent man on a capital charge. Cic.

2. The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely:

Id me accusis, you accuse me of that. Plant.

3. The Ablative alone or with a preposition, generally de:

De pecuniis repetundis damnatus est, he was convicted of extortion. Cic.

III. With verbs of Condemning, the *Penalty* is generally expressed by the *Ablative*, or by the *Accusative with a preposition*, usually ad:

Tertia parte damnari, to be condemned to forfeit a third of one's land. Liv. Capite damnare, to condemn to death. Cic. Morte multare, to purish with death. Cic. Ad bestias condemnare, to condemn to the wild beasts. Suct.

Note 1 .- In the poets the penalty is sometimes expressed by the Dative:

Morti damnatus, condemned to death. Lucr.

Note 2.—The Genitive occurs in such special expressions as capitis condemnāre, 'to condemn to death';  $v\bar{v}t\bar{i}$  damnār $\bar{i}$ , 'to be condemned to fulfil a vow' = 'to obtain a wish'; damnār $\bar{i}$  long $\bar{i}$  labōris, 'to be condemned to long labor';  $vot\bar{i}$  reus<sup>2</sup> =  $v\bar{v}t\bar{i}$  damnātus, 'condemned to fulfil a vow':

Aliquem capitis condemnāre, to condemn one to death. Cic. Damnātus longī laboris, condemned to long labor. Hor.

IV. With MISERET, PAENITET, PUDET, TAEDET, and PIGET, an Infinitive or Clause is sometimes used, rarely a neuter pronoun or nihil:

Mē paenitet vīxisse, I repent having lived. Cic. Tē haec pudent, these things shame you. Ter.

Note 1.—Like miseret are sometimes used miserescit, commiserescit, miseretur, commiseretur. Like tuedet are used pertuedet, pertuesum est.

Note 2.—Pudet sometimes takes the Genitive of the person before whom one is a shamed:

Me tui pudet, I am ashamed in your presence. Ter. Pudet hominum, it is a shame in the sight of men. Liv.

<sup>1</sup> Regularly so when the penalty is a definite sum of money.

<sup>2</sup> Best explained as a substantive.

Note 3 .- Pertaesus admits the Accusative of the object :

Pertaesus ignāviam suam, disgusted with his own inaction. Suet.

V. Many other verbs sometimes take the Genitive. Thus-

Some verbs of plenty and want, as compleo, impleo, i egeo, indigeo, like adjectives of the same meaning (399, 1., 3):

Virtus exercitătionis indiget, virtue requires exercise. Cic. Auxilii egere, to need aid. Caes. Multitudinem religionis implevit, he inspired (filled) the multitude with religion. Liv. Rerum satagere, to be occupied with (to do enough of) business. Ter.

2. Some verbs of desire, emotion, or feeling, like adjectives of the same meaning (399, 1, 1):

Cupiunt tui, they desire you. Plaut. Tui testimonii veritus, fearing your testimony. Cic. Animi's pendeo, I am uncertain in mind. Cic. Discrucior animi, I am troubled in spirit. Plaut. Te angis animi, you make yourself anxious in mind. Plaut. Desipere mentis, to be foolish in mind, or mistaken in opinion. Plaut.

3. A few verbs denoting mastery or participation, like adjectives of the same meaning (399, I., 3), potior, adipiscor, requê:

Siciliae potitus est, he became master of Sicily. Nep. Rērum adeptus est, he obtained the power. Tac. Rēguāvit populorum, he was king of the peoples. Hor.

4. In the poets, a few verbs take the Genitive, instead of the Ablative of Separation or Cause (413):

Abstinere irarum, to abstain from anger. Hor. Laborum decipitur, he is beguiled of his labors. Hor. Desine querelarum, cease from complaints. Hor. Desistere pugnae, to desist from the buttle. Verg. Eum culpae liberare, to free him from blume (i. e., to acquit him). Liv. Mirari laborum, to admire because of toils. Verg. Damni intecti promittere, to give surety in view of expected damage. Cie.

Note .- For the Genilire of Gerunds and Gerundives, see 542, I.; 544.

## SECTION VII.

#### ABLATIVE.

- 411. The LATIN ABLATIVE performs the duties of three cases originally distinct: 6
  - I. The Ablative Proper, denoting the relation from:

Expulsus est patrià, he was banished from his country. Cie.

- 1 Transitives of this class of course admit the Accusative with the Genitive.
- <sup>2</sup> See 421, II.
- 3 Animi in such instances is probably a Locative in origin, as animis is used in the same way in the plural. See foot-note on animi, 399, III., 1.
  - 4 Potior takes the Genitive regularly when it means to reduce to subjection.
  - 5 As abstineo, decipio, desino, desisto, levo, libero, etc.; miror, etc.
- \* These three cases, still recognized in the Sanskrit, originally had distinct forms; but in the Latin, under the induced of phonetic change and decay, these forms have

II. The Instrumental, denoting the relation with, by: Sol omnia luee collustrat, the sun illumines all things with its light. Cic.

III. The LOCATIVE, denoting the relation IN, AT:

Sē oppidō tenet, he keeps himself in the town. Cic.

#### I. Ablative Proper.

#### RULE XXI.-Place from which.

# 412. The Place from which is denoted by the Ablative:

I. Generally with a preposition—ā, ab, dē, or ex:

Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city. Caes. De fore, from the forum. Cic. Ex Africa, from (out of) Africa. Liv.

II. In Names of Towns without a preposition: 1

Platōnem Athēnīs arcessīvit, he summoned Plato from Athens. Nep. Fūgit Corinthō, he fled from Corinth. Cic.

1. Many names of islands, and the Ablatives  $dom\tilde{o}$  and  $r\tilde{u}rc$ , are used like names of towns:

 $Dom\bar{o}$  profügit, he fled from home. Cic.  $D\bar{e}l\bar{o}$  proficiscitur, he proceeds from Delos. Cic.

2. The Ablative of places not towns is sometimes used without a preposition, especially in poetry:

Cadere  $n\bar{n}bibas$ , to fall from the clouds. Verg. Lábi equō, to fall from a horse. Hor.

3. The preposition is sometimes used with names of towns, especially for emphasis or contrast:

Ab Ardeā Romam vēnērunt, they came from Ardea to Rome. Liv.

Note.—The preposition is generally used when the *vicinity*, rather than the town itself, is meant;

Discessit a Brundisio, he departed from Brundisium (i. e., from the port). Caes.

### RULE XXII.-Separation, Source, Cause.

413. Separation, Source, and Cause are denoted by the Ablative with or without a preposition:

Separation.—Caedem ā vödīs dēpellō, I ward off slaughter from you. Cie. Hunc ā tuīs ārīs arcēbis, you will keep this one from your altars.

become identical, and their uses have been blended in a single case called the Ablative. On the general subject of the Ablative and its use, see Merguet, pp. 103-117; Delbrück; Hübschmann, pp. 82-106; Holzweissig, pp. 28 and 75; Draeger, I., pp. 494-571; Roby, II., pp. 68-115.

<sup>1</sup> This was the original construction for all places alike.

Gic. Expulsus est patriā, he was banished from his country. Cic. Urbem commeātā prīvāvit, he deprived the city of supplies. Nep. Conātū destitērunt, they desisted from the attempt. Caes. Vāgīnā ēripe ferrum, draw your sword from its scabbard. Verg.

Source.—Hoe audivi de parente meo, I heard this from My father. Cic. Orinndi ab Sabinis, descended from the Sabines. Liv. Statua ex aere facta, a statue made of bronze. Cic. Abiete puppis, the stern made of fir. Verg. Jove natus, son of Jupiter. Cic.

Cause.—Ars ūtihtūte laudātur, an art is praised because of its usefulness. Cic. Laerimō gaudiō, I weep for (on account of) joy. Ter. Vestrā hōc causā volēbam, I desired this on your account. Cic. Rogātū vēneram, I had come by request Cic. Ex vulnere aeger, ill in consequence of his wound. Cic. Aeger erat vulneribus, he was ill in consequence of his wounds. Nep.

Note 1 .- Transitive Verbs admit an Accusative with the Ablative; see examples.

Note 2.—The *prepositions* most frequently used with the Ablative of Separation and Source are  $\tilde{a}$ , ab, dc,  $\tilde{c}$ ,  $\epsilon x$ , and with the Ablative of Cause,  $d\tilde{e}$ ,  $\tilde{c}$ ,  $\epsilon x$ .

Note 3.—With the Ablative of Separation the preposition is more freely used when the separation is boad and literal than when it is figurative: dē forā, 'from the forum'; ex Asiā, 'out of Asia'; but levāre metū, 'to relieve from fear'; cōnātū dēsistere, 'to desist from the undertaking.'

Note 4.—For the Genitive instead of the Ablative of Separation, see 410, V., 4; and for the Detire similarly used, see 385, 2.

- 414. The Ablative of Separation designates that from which anything is separated, or of which it is deprived, and is generally used without a preposition in the following situations:
  - I. With verbs meaning to relieve, deprive, need, be without: 1

Levá mé hôc onere, reliere me of this bunden. Cie. Vinclis exsolvere, to relieve of trouble. Cie. Militem praedă fraudăre, to defraud the soldiery of booty. Liv. Non egeo medicină, I do not need a remedy. Cie. Vaeăre culpă, to be free from fault. Cie. See also examples under 413.

II. With moveo in special expressions: 9

Signum movere  $loc\hat{o},$  to move the standard from the place. Cic.

III. With a licetives meaning free from, destitute of: 3

Animus liber curá, a mind free from care. Cie. Expers meth, free from fear. Cie. Urbs mida praesidio, a city destitute of defence. Cie.

Note.—For a similar use of the Genitive,4 see 399, I., 3.

IV. With opus and ūsus, meaning need:

As expedió, exoneró, leró, releró, liberó, relaxó, solvó, absolró, exsolcó: exuo, fraudó, núdó, orbó, spolió, priró, etc.

<sup>2</sup> As ln morère loco, morère senata, movère triba, morère restigio.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> A or ab is generally used with names of persons and sometimes with other words.

Egēnus, indigus, sterilis, and some others are freely used with the Genitive; see
 399, 1., 3

Auctöritäte tuä nödis opus est, we need (there is to us a need of) your authority. Cie. Üsus est tuä mihi operä, I need your aid. Plaut.

Note 1.—In most other instances a preposition accompanies the Ablative of Separation, though often omitted in poetry and in late prose.

Note 2.— $Opus\ est$  and  $usus\ est$  admit the Dative of the person with the Ablative of the thing; see examples.

NOTE 3.—With opus and ūsus, the Δblative is sometimes a perfect participle, or, with opus, a noun and a participle:

Consulto opus est, there is need of deliberation. Sall. Opus fuit Hirtio convento, there was need of meeting Hirtius. Cic.

Note 4.—With opus est, rarely with ūsus est, the thing needed may be denoted—

1) By the Nominative, rarely by the Genitive or Accusative;

Dux nobis opus est, we need a leader, or a leader is necessary (a necessity) for us. Cic. Temporis opus est, there is need of time. Liv. Opus est cibum, there is need of food. Plant.

2) By an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Supine:

Opus est të valëre, it is necessary that you be well. Cic. Opus est ut lavem, it is necessary for me to bathe (that I bathe). Plant. Dictu est opus, it is necessary to be told. Ter.

- 415. The Ablative of Source more commonly takes a preposition; see examples under 413. It includes agency, parentage, material, etc.
- I. The agent or author of an action is designated by the Ablative with a or ab:

Occidit a Thebanis, he was slain by the Thebans. Nep. Occidit a forti Achille, he was slain (lit., fell) by brave Achilles. Ov.

1. The Ablative without a preposition may be used of a *person*, regarded not as the *author* of the action, but as the *means* by which it is effected:

Cornua Numidīs! firmat, he strengthens the wings with Numidians. Liv.

Note 1.—The Accusative with per may be used of the  $person\ through\ whose\ ugency$  the action is effected:

Ab Oppianicō  $per\ Fabriciōs^1$  factum est, it was accomplished by Oppianicus through the agency of the Fabricii. Cie.

Note 2.—For the Dative of Agent, see 388.

2. When anything is personified as agent, the Ablative with  $\bar{a}$  or ab may be used as in the names of persons:

Vineī ā voluptāte, to be conquered by pleasure. Cie. Ā fortūnā datam occāsionem, an opportunity furnished by fortune. Nep.

II. Perfect Participles denoting parentage or birth—genitus, nātus, ortus, etc.—generally take the Ablative without a preposition:

Jove nātus, son of Jupiter. Cic. Tantalo prognātus, descended from Tantalus. Cic. Parentibus nāti humilibus, born of humble parents. Cic.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Here note the distinction between the Ablative with ab (ab Oppianicō), denoting the author of the action, the Accusative with per (per Fabriciōs), the person through whose agency the action was performed, and the Ablative alone (Numidis), the means of the action.

Note.—In designating Remote Ancestry,  $\tilde{a}$  or ab is generally used; but after  $n\tilde{a}tus$  and ortus, the Ablatives  $famili\tilde{a}$ , genere,  $loc\tilde{o}$ , and stirpe, when modified by an adjective, omit the preposition:

Oriundi ab Sabinis, descended from the Sabines. Liv. Orti ab Germanis, sprung from the Germans. Caes. Nobili genere natus, born of a noble family. Sall.

III. With the Ablative of Material, ē or ex is generally used, though often omitted, especially in poetry:

Statua ex aere facta, a statue made of bronze. Cic. Pôcula ex aurō, cups of gold. Cic. Aere cavō clipcus, a shield of concave bronze. Verg. Abiete puppis, the stern made of fir. Verg.

Note 1.—A special use of the Ablative, kindred to the above, is seen with facio, fio, and sum in such expressions as the following:

Quid hoc homine facias, what are you to do with this man? Cic. Quid illo fiet, what will become of him? Cic. Quid to futurum est, what will become of you? Cic.

Note 2.—The Dative or the Ablative with  $d\bar{e}$  occurs in nearly the same sense:

Quid huic homini facias, what are you to do with (or to) this man? Cic. Quid de to futurum est, what will become of you? Cic.

- 416. The Ablative of Cause is generally used without a preposition. It designates that by reason of which, because of which, in accordance with which anything is or is done, and is used both with verbs and with adjectives; 2 see examples under 413.
  - I. Cause is sometimes denoted-
  - 1) By the Ablative with a, ab, de, ex, prae:

Ab eadem superbia anon venire, not to come because of the same haughtiness. Liv. Ex vulnere a aeger, ill in consequence of his wound. Cie. Ex invidia laborare, to suffer from unpopularity. Cie. Non prae lacrimis seribere, not to write in consequence of tears. Cie.

2) By the Accusative with ob, per, propter:

Per actatem inutiles, nseless because of (lit., through) their age. Caes. In oppidum propter timorem sese recipiunt, they betake themselves into the city on account of their fear. Caes.

Note 1.—With transitive verbs the motive which prompts the action is often expressed by the Ablative with a perfect passive participle:

Kėgni enpiditate 4 inductus conjūrationem fecit, influenced by the desire of ruling, he formed a conspiracy. Caes.

NOTE 2.—That in accordance with which anything is done is often denoted by the Ablative with è or ex:

- <sup>1</sup> The Ablative of Cause is very far removed from the original meaning of the Ablative, and indeed in some of its uses was probably derived from the Instrumental Ablative; see 418.
- <sup>2</sup> This includes such Ablatives as meö jüdiciö, in accordance with my opinion; meä sententiä, jüssü, impulsü, monitü, etc.; causä, grātiä; also the Ablative with desipiö, doleö, exsiliö, exsultö, guudeö, labörö, lacrimö, lactor, triumphö, etc.
  - 3 See note 2, foot-note.
- 4 Here cupiditate must be construed with inductus, yet it really expresses the cause of the action, field.

Res ex foedere repetuntur, restitution is demanded in accordance with the treaty. Liv. Dies ex praeceptis this actus, a day passed in accordance with your precepts. Cic. Ex véritate aestimâre, to estimate in accordance with the truth. Cic. Ex auctoritate 3 senatus confirmare, to ratify on the authority of the senate. Liv.

#### RULE XXIII.-Ablative with Comparatives.

417. Comparatives without QUAM are followed by the Ablative: 2

Nihil est amābilius virtūte,³ nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Quid est melius bonitūte,³ what is better than goodness? Cic. Scīmus sōlem mājōrem esse terrā,³ we know that the sun is larger than the carth. Cic. Amīcitia, quā nihil melius habēmus, friendship, than which we have nothing better. Cic. Lacrimā nihil citius ārēscit, nothing dries sooner than a tear. Cic. Potiōrem īrā salūtem habet, he regards safety as better than anger. Liv.

1. Comparatives with Quam are followed by the Nominative, or by the case of the corresponding noun before them:

Hibernia minor quam Britannia existimătur, Ireland is considered smaller than Britain. Caes. Agrīs quam urbī terribilior, more terrible to the country than to the city. Liv.

Note 1.—The construction with quam is the full form for which the Ablative is an abbreviation. The Ablative is freely used for quam with a Subject Nominative or Subject Accusative—regularly so for quam with the Nominative or Accusative of a relative pronoun, as in the fourth example under the rule. In other cases quam is retained in the best prose, though sometimes omitted in poetry.

Note 2.—After plūs, minus, amplius, or longius, in expressions of number and quantity, quam is often omitted without influence upon the construction; 4 sometimes also after mājor, minor, etc.;

Tecum plus annum vixit, he lived with you more than a year. Cic. Minus duo miha, tess than two thousand. Liv.

Note 3.—Instead of the Ablative after a comparative, a preposition with its case, as ante, prae, praeter, or supra, is sometimes used:

Ante aliös immänior, more monstrous than (before) the others. Verg.

Note 4.—Alius, involving a comparison, other than, is sometimes used with the Ablative.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These and similar Ablatives with prepositions show the transition from source to cause, and illustrate the manner in which the latter was developed from the former. The Ablative with the preposition seems in general to retain something of the idea of source.

<sup>2</sup> This Ablative furnishes the standard of comparison—that from which one starts. Thus, if civitue is taken as the standard of what is lovely, nothing is more so. This Ablative is sometimes explained as instrumental (418), but that view is controverted by a similar use of the Greek Genitive, which does not contain the instrumental Ablative, and of the Sanskrit Ablative, which is often distinct from the instrumental.

 $<sup>^3</sup>$  Virtăte = quam virtăs; bonităte = quam bonităs; terră = quam terram (sc. esse).

<sup>4</sup> So in expressions of age: nātus plās trīgintā annās, 'having been born more than thirty years.' The same meaning is also expressed by mājor trīgintā annās nātus, mājor trīgintā annās, mājor quam trīgintā annārum, or mājor trīgintā annārum.

Quaerit alia his, he secks other things than these. Plant. Alius sapiente, other than a neise man. Hor.

Note 5.—Quam pro denotes disproportion, and many Ablatives—opinione, spo, aequo, justo, solito, etc.—are often best rendered by clauses;

Minor caedés quam pro victoria, less slaughter than was proportionate to the victory. Liv. Sérius spé vénit, he came later than was hoped (than hope). Liv. Plus arquo, more than is fair. Cic.

2. With Comparatives, the Measure of Difference, the amount by which one thing surpasses another, is denoted by the Ablative:

Hibernia dimirliò minor quam Britannia, Ireland smaller by one half than Britain. Caes.

#### II. INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE.

418. The Instrumental Ablative denotes both Accompaniment and Means.<sup>2</sup>

#### RULE XXIV.-Ablative of Accompaniment.

## 419. The Ablative is used—

I. To denote ACCOMPANIMENT. It then takes the preposition **cum**:

Vivit cum Balbō, he lives with Balbus. Cie. Cum gladiīs stant, they stand with swords (i. e., armed with swords). Cie.

II. To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an adjective or by a Genitive.

Summā virtūte adulēseēns, a youth of the highest virtue. Caes. Quīdam māgnō eapite, ōre rubicundō, māgnīs pedibus, a certain one with a large head, with a red face, and with large feet. Plaut. Catilina ingeniō malō fuit, Catiline was a man of a bad spirit. Sall. Ūrī sunt speciē taurī, the urus is (lit., the uri are) of the appearance of a bull. Caes.

Note.—The Ablative, when used to denote characteristic or quality, may be called either the Descriptive Ablative or the Ablative of Characteristic.

# III. To denote Manner.<sup>3</sup> It then takes the preposition **cum**, or is modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

<sup>1</sup> See 423.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The idea of means was probably developed from that of accompaniment, as seen in such expressions as cum omnibus copies sequitur, the pursues with all his forces accompaniment, which readily suggests means, as he employs his forces as means, equis irerunt, they went with horses —accompaniment and means. Some scholars have conjectured that originally accompaniment and means were expressed by separate case-forms, but of this there seems to be little proof

Note the close connection between these three uses of the Ablative—the first designating an attendant person or thing—with Balbus, with swords; the second, an attendant quality—a youth with (attended by) the highest virtue; the third, an attend-

Cum virtute vīxit, he lived virtuously. Cie. Summā vī proelium eommīsērunt, they joined battle with the greatest violence. Nep. Duōbus modīs fit, it is done in two ways. Cie.

Note 1.—The Ablative of manner sometimes takes cum even when modified by an adjective:

Magnā cum cūrā scrīpsit, he wrote with great care. Cie.

NOTE 2.—But the Ablative of a few words is sometimes used without *cum*, even when unattended by an adjective, as *jūre*, 'rightly'; *injūriā*, 'unjustly'; *ordine*, 'in an orderly manner'; *ratiōne*, 'systematically'; *silentiō*, 'in silence,' etc.<sup>1</sup>

NOTE 3.—Per, with the Accusative, sometimes denotes manner: per vim, 'violently'; per lūdum, 'sportively.'

- 1. On the Ablative of Accompaniment, observe-
- 1) That *cum* is often omitted—(1) especially when the Ablative is qualified by an adjective, and (2) after *jungo*, *misceo*, and their compounds;

Ingenti exercitu profectus est, he set out with a large army. Liv. Improbitas scelere juncta, depravity joined with erime. Cic.

2) That the Ablative with cum is often used of hostile encounters:

Cum Gallis certare, to fight with the Gauls. Sall. Nobiscum hostes contenderunt, the enemy contended with us. Cic.

Note. - For the Dative with verbs denoting union or contention, see 385, 4, 3).

- 2. On the Descriptive Ablative, as compared with the Descriptive Genitive, observe—
- 1) That in descriptions involving size and number, the Genitive is used; see examples under 396, V.
- 2) That in most descriptions involving external characteristics, parts of the body, and the like, the Ablative is used, as in the second and fourth examples under 419, Il.
  - 3) That in other instances either ease may be used.
- 4) That the Ablative, like the Genitive, may be used either with nouns, as in the first and second examples under 419, ll., or with verbs in the predicate, as in the other examples.

#### RULE XXV.-Ablative of Means.

# 420. Instrument and Means are denoted by the Ablative:

Cornibus taurī sē tūtantur, bulls defend themselves with their horns. Cie. Glōriā dūcitur, he is led by glory. Cie. Sōl omnia lūce collustrat, the sun illumines all things with its light. Cie. Lacte vīvunt, they live upon milk. Caes. Tellūs saucia vomeribus, the carth turned (wounded) with the ploughshare. Ovid.

ant circumstance—to live with virtue, virtuously. Compare cum Balbō vivere and cum virtūte rirere.

¹ But perhaps most Ablatives which never take eum are best explained as the Ablative of cause—as lēge, 'aecording to law'; consuetūdine, 'aecording to custom'; consultō, 'on purpose,' etc.

Note.—This Ablative is of frequent occurrence, and is used both with verbs and with adjectices.

- 1. The following expressions deserve notice:
- Quadraginta hostis sacrificare, to sacrifice with forty victims. Liv. Facere vitula, to make a sacrifice of (lit., wirm) a female calf. Verg.
- Fidibus cantăre, to play upon a striuged instrument. Cic. Pilă ludere, to play at ball (lit., with the ball). Hor.
- 3) Aurēliā viā proficisei, to set out by the Aurelian way. Cic. Eodem itinere ire, to go by the same road. Liv. Esquilinā portā ingredī, to euter by the Esquiline gate. Liv.
- 4) Virtute praeditus, possessed of virtue. Cic. Legiones pulchris armis praeditas, levions furnished with be tutiful arms. Plaut.
- 2. Adficio with the Ablative forms a very common circumlocution: honors adficere = honorare, to honor; admiratione adficere = admirari, to admire; poena adficere = panire, to punish, etc:

Omnés lactitià adficit, he gladdens all. Cic.

#### RULE XXVI.-Ablative in Special Constructions.

#### **421**. The Ablative is used—

I. With utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plūrimis rībus fruimur et ūtimur, ve enjog and use very many things. Cie. Magnā est praedā potītus, he obtained great booty. Nep. Lacte et carne vescēbantur, they lived upon milk and flesh. Sall.

II. With VERBS and ADJECTIVES OF PLENTY:

Villa abundat lacte, ease, melle; the villa abounds in Milk, cheese, and honey. Cie. Urbs referta copius, a city filled with supplies. Cie. Virtüte praeditus, endowed with virtue. Cie. Deus bonis explévit mundum, God has filled the world with blessings. Cie.

## III. With dīgnus, indīgnus,2 and contentus:

Dīgnī sunt amīcitiā, they are worthy of friendship. Cie. Vir patre dīgnus, a man worthy of his father. Cie. Honore indīguissimus, most unworthy of honor. Cie. Nātūra parvo contenta, nature content with little. Cie.

Note 1.—Transitive verbs of Plenty 3 take the Accusative and Ablative:

Armis naves onerat, he loads the ships with arms. Sall. See also the last example under 421, II.

Note 2.—Dignor, as a Passive verb meaning 'to be deemed worthy,'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This Ablative is readily explained as the Ablative of means: thus, inter, 'I use,' 'I serve myself by means of'; fruor, 'I enjoy,' 'I delight myself with'; rescor, 'I feed upon,' 'I feed myself with,' etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The nature of the Ablative with *dignus* and *indignus* is somewhat uncertain. On etymological grounds it is explained as *instrumental*; see Delbrück, p. 72; Corssen, \*Krit. Beltr.,\* p. 47.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Transitive verbs of plenty mean 'to fill,' 'to furnish with,' etc., as cumuló, compleô, impleô, imbuô, instruô, overô, ôrnô, etc.

takes the Ablative; but as a *Deponent* verb meaning 'to deem worthy,' used only in poetry and late prose, it takes the Accusative and Ablative:

Honore dignati sunt, they have been deemed worthy of honor. Cic. Me dignor honore, I deem myself worthy of honor. Verg.

Note 3.—Dignus and indignus occur with the Genitive:

Dignus salūtis, worthy of safety. Plaut. Indignus avorum, unworthy of their ancestors. Verg.

Note 4.— $\bar{U}tor$ , fruor, fungor, potior, and rescor, originally transitive, are occasionally so used in classic authors. Their participle in dus is passive in sense.  $\bar{U}tor$  admits two Ablatives of the same person or thing:

Me utetur patre, he witt find (use) me a father. Ter.

Note 5.—For the Genitive with potior, see 410, V., 3. For the Genitive with verbs and adjectives of plenty, and for the Accusative and Genitive with transitive verbs of plenty, see 410, V., I, with foot-note, and 399, I., 3.

#### RULE XXVII.-Ablative of Price.

# 422. Price is generally denoted by the Ablative:

Vēndidit aurō patriam, he sold his country for gold. Verg. Condūxit māgnō domum, he hired a house at a high price. Cic. Multō sanguine Poenīs vīctōria stetit, the victory cost the Carthaginians (stood to the Carthaginians at) much blood. Liv. Quīnquāgintā talentīs aestimārī, to be valued at fifty talents. Nep. Vīle est vīgintī minīs, it is cheap at twenty minae. Plaut.

Note 1.—The Ablative of Price is used (1) with verbs of buying, selling, hiring, letting; (2) of costing, of being cheap or dear; (3) of valuing; (4) with adjectives of value.

Note 2.—With verbs of Exchanging— $m\bar{u}t\bar{o}$ ,  $comm\bar{u}t\bar{o}$ , etc.—(1) the thing received is generally treated as the price, as with verbs of selling, but (2) sometimes the thing given is treated as the price, as with verbs of buying, or is put in the Ablative with cum:

Pace bellum mutavit, he exchanged war for peace. Sall. Exsilium patrià mutavit, he exchanged his country for exile. Curt. Cum patriae căritâte gloriam commutavit, he exchanged lore of country for glory. Cic.

Note 3.-For the Genitive of Price, see 405.

#### RULE XXVIII.-Ablative of Difference.

# 423. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative:

Ūnō diē longiōrem mēnsem faciunt, they make the month one day longer (longer by one day). Cic. Biduō mē antecēssit, he preceded me by two days. Cic. Sōl multīs partibus mājor est quam terra, the sun is very much (lit., by many parts) larger than the earth. Cic.

Note 1.—The Ablative is thus used with all words involving a comparison, but adverbs often supply its place: multum robustior, 'inuch more robust.'

NOTE 2.—The Ablative of difference includes the Ablative of distance (379, 2), and the Ablative with ante, post, and abhine in expressions of time (430).

<sup>1</sup> As sto, consto, ticeo, sum, etc.; carus, renalis, etc.

#### RULE XXIX.-Specification.

424. A noun, adjective, or verb may take an Ablative to define its application:

Agēsilāus nomine, non potestāte fuit rēx, Agesilaus was king in name, not in fower. Nep. Claudus altero pede, lame in one foot. Nep. Moribus similēs, similar in character. Cie. Reliquos Gallos virtūte praecēdunt, they surpass the other Gauls in courage. Caes.

Note 1.—This Ablative shows in what respect or particular anything is true: thus, king (in what respect?) in name.

NOTE 2.- For the Accusative of Specification, see 378.

#### III. LOCATIVE ABLATIVE.

#### RULE XXX.-Place in which.

### 425. The Place is which is denoted—

I. Generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition in:

Hannibal in İtalia fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep. In nostrīs castrīs, iu our camp. Caes. In Appiā viā, on the Appian way. Cie.

II. In Names of Towns by the *Locative*, if such a form exists, otherwise by the *Locative Ablative*:

Rōmae fuit, he was at Rome. Cie. Coriuthi pueros docebat, he taught boys at Corinth. Cie. Athēnis fuit, he was at Athens. Cie. Hoe facis Argis, you do this at Argos. Hor. Karthāgine rēgēs creābantur, kings were elected (created) at Carthage. Nep. Gādibus vīxit, he lived at Gades. Cie.

Note.—For the construction with verbs meaning to collect to come together, and with those meaning to place, see 380, note.

- 1. In the names of places which are not towns, the Locative Ablative is often used without a preposition:
- 1) When the idea of means, manner, or cause is combined with that of place:  $^3$

Castrīs se tenuit, he kept himself in camp. Caes. Aliquem tecto receipere, to receive any one in one's own house. Cic. Proelio cadere, to fall in battle. Caes. Aduléscentibus délectari, to take pleasure in the young. Cic. Sua

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The learner will remember that the Locative Ablative does not differ in form from any other Ablative; see 411.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See 48, 4; 51, 8; 66, 4. The Locative was the original construction in all names of places.

 $<sup>^{3}</sup>$  In some cases place and means are so combined that it is difficult to determine which is the original conception.

victoria gloriantur, they glory in their victory. Caes. Nullo officio assucfacti, trained in no duty. Caes.

Note.—The Ablative is generally used with fido, confido, nitor, innitor, and fretus:

Nemo fortunae stabilitate confidit, no one trusts (confides in) the stability of fortune. Cic. Salus veritate nititur, sufety rests upon truth. Cic. Fretus amicis, relying upon his friends. Liv.

2) When the idea of place is figurative rather than literal:

Nova pectore versat consilia, she devises (turns over) new plans in her breast. Verg. Stare jūdiciās, to abide by (stand in) the decisions. Cic. Promissis mancre, to remain true to promises (lit., remain in). Verg. Pendere animis, to be perplexed in mind. Cic. Intimās sēnsibus angā, to be troubled in one's immost feelings. Cic. Ferox bello, valiant in war. Hor. Jūre peritus, skilled in law. Cic.

2. The Ablatives locō, locīs, parte, partibus, dextrā, laevā, sinistrā, terrā, and marī, especially when qualified by an adjective, and other Ablatives when qualified by tōtus, are generally used without the preposition:

Aliquid loco ponere, to put anything in its place. Cie. Terra marique, on land and sea. Liv. Tota Graecia, in all Greece. Nep.

Note 1.—The Ablative  $libr\bar{o}$ , 'book,' generally takes the preposition when used of a portion of a work, but omits it when used of an entire treatise:

In eō librō, in this book (referring to a portion of the work). Cic. Aliō librō, in another work. Cic.

Note 2.—Other Ablatives sometimes occur without the preposition, especially when qualified by omnis, medius, or universus:

Omnibus oppidis, in all the towns. Caes.

Note 3.- In poetry the Locative Ablative is often used without the preposition:

Lücis opācīs, in shady groves. Verg. Silvīs agrīsque, in the forests and fields. Ov. Theātrīs, in the theatres. Hor. Ferre umerō, to bear upon the shoulder. Verg.

- 3. ABLATIVE FOR THE LOCATIVE.—Instead of the Locative in names of towns the Ablative is used, with or without a preposition—
- When the proper name is qualified by an adjective or adjective pronoun: In ipsā Alexandrīā,<sup>2</sup> in Alexandria itself. Cie. Longā Albā, at Alba Longa. Verg.
  - 2) Sometimes when not thus modified:

In monte Albānō Lāvīniōque, on the Alban mount and at Lavinium. Liv. In Alexandriā,<sup>2</sup> at Alexandria. Liv.

Note.—The following special constructions deserve notice:

In oppidō Citiō, in the town Citium. Nep. Albae, in urbe opportūnā, at Alba, a convenient city. Cie.

- $^1$  In the singular  $anim\bar{\imath}$  is generally used, a Locative probably both in form and in signification; see p. 211, foot-note 4.
  - <sup>2</sup> At Alexandria would regularly be expressed by the Locative, Alexandriae.
- <sup>2</sup> Here  $Citi\tilde{o}$  is in apposition with  $oppid\tilde{o}$ , the usual construction in such cases, though a Genitive limiting  $oppid\tilde{o}$  occurs: In oppid $\tilde{o}$  Antiochiae, in the city of Antioch. Cic.
- 4 A Locative may thus be followed by in urbe, or in oppido, modified by an adjective; but see 363, 4, 2). The preposition in is sometimes omitted.

#### 426. LIKE NAMES OF TOWNS are used—

1. Many NAMES OF ISLANDS:

Lesbi vixit, he lived in Lesbos. Nep. Conon Cypri vixit, Conon lived in Cyprus. Nep.

2. The Locatives domi, rūrī, humī, mīlitiae, and bellī:

Domi militiaeque, at home and in the field. Cie. Rūrī agere vitam, to spend life in the country. Liv.

Note. - A few other Locatives also occur:

Rômae Numidiaeque, at Rome and in Numidia. Sall. Domum Chersonësi habuit, he had a house in the Chersonesus. Nep. Truncum reliquit arënae, he left the body in the sand. Vers.

- 427. Summary.—The Names of Places not towns are generally put—
  - I. In the Accusative with ad or in, to denote the PLACE TO WHICH:

In Asiam redit, he returns to (into) Asia. Nep.

- II. In the Ablative with ab, de, or ex, to denote the place from which:
  Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city. Caes.
- III. In the Locative Ablative with in, to denote the PLACE AT OF IN WHICH: Hannibal in Italia fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep.

Note.—For qualifications and exceptions, see 380, 3 and 4; 412, 2; 425, 1 and 2.

428. Summary.—The Names of Towns are put 2-

I. In the Accusative, to denote the PLACE TO WHICH:

Nuntius Romam redit, the messenger returns to Rome. Liv.

H. In the Ablative, to denote the PLACE FROM WHICH:

Fügit Corintho, he fled from Corinth. Cie.

III. In the Localive, or in the Localive Ablative, to denote the place at or in which:

Corinthi pueros docebat, he taught boys at Corinth. Cic. Gadibus vixit, he lived at Gades. Cic.

Note.-For qualifications and exceptions, see 380, 1; 412, 3; 425, 3.

#### RULE XXXI.-Time.

# 429. The Time of an Action is denoted by the Ablative:

Octogesimo anno est mortuus, he died in his eightieth year. Cic. Vere convenère, they assembled in the spring. Liv. Natali die suo, on his birth-

<sup>1</sup> So also terrue and riciniae.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This, the original construction for all names of places, has been retained unchanged only in the names of towns and in a few other words. Most names of places have assumed a preposition with the Accusative and Ablative, and have substituted the Locative Ablative with a preposition in place of the Locative; see 411, 111.

<sup>3</sup> That is, the Locative is used If any such form exists; If not, the Locative Ablative supplies its place.

day. Nep. Hieme et aestate, in winter and summer. Cic. Sōlis occasū, at sunset. Caes. Adventū Caesaris, on the arrival of Caesar. Caes. Lūdīs, at the time of the games. Cic. Vix decem annīs, searcely in ten years. Nep. Hīs vīgintī annīs, within these twenty years. Cic.

1. Certain relations of Time are denoted by the Ablative with in or de:

In tâli tempore, at such a time (i. e., under such eircumstances). Liv. In dicbus proximis decem, in the next ten days. Sall. De media nocte, in (lit., from, out of) the middle of the night. Caes.

Certain relations of Time are denoted by the Accusative with ad, in, inter, intrā, sub, etc.:

Ad constitutan diem, at the appointed day. Cic. Ad conam invitare in posterum diem, to invite to dinner for the next day. Cic. Intra viginti dics, within twenty days. Plant. Inter tot annos, within so many years. Cic. Sub noctem, toward night. Caes.

430. The Interval between two events may be denoted by the Accusative or Ablative with ante or post:<sup>2</sup>

Aliquot post menses 3 occisus est, he was put to death some months after. Cic. Post dies pauces venit, he came after a few days. Liv. Paucis ante diebus, 3 a few days before. Cic. Homerus annis multis fuit ante Romhum, Homer liced many years before Romalus. Cic. Paucis diebus post ejus mortem, a few days after his death. Cic. Annis quingentis post, fire hundred years after. Cic. Quartum post annum quam redierat, four years after he had returned. Nep. None anno postquam, nine years after. Nep. Sexto anno quam erat expulsus, six years after he had been banished. Nep.

Note 1 .- In these examples observe-

- That the numeral may be either cardinal, as in the sixth example, or ordinal, as in the last three.<sup>4</sup>
- 2) That with the Accusative ante and post either precede the numeral and the noun, or stand between them; but that with the Ablative they either follow both, or stand between them.<sup>5</sup>
- 3) That quam may follow ante and post, as in the seventh example; may be united with them, as in the eighth, or may be used for postquam, as in the ninth.

Note 2.—The Ablative of the Relative may be used for postquam: Quatriduo, quo occisus est, four days after he was killed. Cic.

- <sup>1</sup> The Ablative with in is used to denote (1) the circumstances of the time, and (2) the time in or within which. In the second sense it is used especially after numeral adverbs and in designating the periods of life: bis in dif, 'twice in the day'; in pueritiā, 'in boyhood,' etc.
- <sup>2</sup> In two instances the Ablative with *abhine* is used like the Ablative with *ante*: Abhine trigintà dicbus, *thirtu dans before*, Cie.
- <sup>3</sup> The Accusative after ante and post depends upon the preposition, but the Ablative is explained as the measure of difference (423).
- 4 Thus, 'five years after' = quinque annis post, or quinto anno post; or post quinque annos, or post quintum annum; or with post between the numeral and the noun, quinque post annis, etc.
  - 5 Any other arrangement is rare.

NOTE 3.—The time since an event may be denoted by the Accusative with abhine or note, or by the Ablative with aute: 1

Abhine annos trecentos fuit, he tired three hundred years ago. Cic. Paucis ante diebus crapit ex urbe, he broke out of the city a few days ago. Cic.

#### RULE XXXII.-Ablative Absolute.2

431. A noun and a participle may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an attendant circumstance:

Serviō rēgnante viguērunt, they flourished in the reign of Servius (Servius reigning). Cie. Rēgibus exāctīs, cōnsulēs creātī sunt, after the banishment of the kings, consuls were appointed. Liv. Equitātū praemissō, subsequēbātur, having sent forward his cavalvy, he followed. Caes. Rēgnum hand satis prōsperum neglēctā rēligiōue, a reign not sufficiently prosperous bec use religion was neglected. Liv. Perditīs rēbus omnibus tamen virtūs sē sustentāre potest, though all things are lost, still virtue is able to sustain itself. Cie. Obsidibus imperātīs, hōs Aeduīs trādīt, having demanded hostages, he delivers them to the Aedui. Caes.

- 1. The Ablative Absolute, much more common than the English Nominative Absolute, generally expresses the time, cause, or some attendant circumstance of an action.
- 2. This Ablative is generally best rendered—(1) by a noun with a preposition—in. during, after, by, with, through, etc.; (2) by an active participle with its object; or (3) by a clause with when, while, because, if, though, etc.; see examples above.
  - 3. A connective sometimes accompanies the Ablative:

Nisi munitis castris, unless the camp should be fortified. Caes.

4. A noun and an adjective, or even two nouns, may be in the Ablative

<sup>1</sup> The Accusative is explained as duration of time (379), the Ablative as measure of difference (423).

2 This Ablative is called absolute, because it is not directly dependent for its construction upon any other word in the sentence. Originally Locative, it was first used to denote situation or time, a meaning from which its later uses may be readily derived. Thus, while the force of a Locative Ablative is apparent in Servito rignante and in rigibus exitetis, it is recognized without difficulty in neglective riligione as indicating the situation or state of things in which the reign was not prosperous. In some instances, however, the Ablative Absolute may be instrumental or causal.

3 Or, while Servius was reigning or was king.

4 Cr. after the kings were banished.

6 In this example obsidibus and how refer to the same persons. This is unusual, as in this construction the Ablative generally refers to some person or thing not otherwise mentioned in the clause to which is belongs.

6 The first method of translation comes nearer the original Latin conception, but the other methods generally accord better with the English idiom.

7 This construction is peculiar to the Latin. In the corresponding constructions in Sanskrit, Greek, and English, the present participle of the verb 'to be' is used. Sereno caclo, when the sky is clear. Sen. Caninio consule, in the consulship of Caninius. Cie.

Note 1.—An infinitive or clause may be in the Ablative Absolute with a neuter participle or adjective:

Auditō Dārīum mõvisse, pergit, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had, etc., having been heard), he advanced. Curt. Multi, incertō quid vitārent, interiērunt, many, uncertain what they should avoid (what they, etc., being uncertain), perished. Liv.

Note 2.—A participle or adjective may stand alone in the Ablative Absolute:

Multum certato, pervicit, he conquered after a hard struggle. Tac.

Note 3.—Quisque or ipse in the Nominative may accompany the Ablative Absolute:

Multis sibi quisque petentibus, while many sought, each for himserf. Sall. Causā ipse prō sē dietā damnātur, having himself advocated his own cause, he is condemned. Liv.

Note 4.—For the use of absente and praesente in the Ablative Absolute with a plurai noun or pronoun, see 438, 6, note.

#### SECTION VIII.

#### CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

#### RULE XXXIII.-Cases with Prepositions.

432. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with prepositions:<sup>2</sup>

Ad amīcum serīpsī, I have written to a friend. Cic. In cūriam, into the senate-house. Liv. In Italiā, in Italy. Nep. Pro castrīs, before the camp.

433. The Accusative is used with-

Ad, adversus (adversum), ante, apud, circã, circum, circiter, cis, citrã, contrã, ērgā, extrã, īnfrã, inter, intrã, juxtã, ob, penes, per, pōne, post, practer, prope, propter, secundum, suprā, trāns, ūltrã, versus:

Ad urbem, to the city. Cic. Adversus deos, toward the gods. Cic. Anto lūcem, before light. Cic. Apud concilium, in the presence of the council. Cic. Circă forum, around the forum. Cic. Citră flūmen, on this side of the river. Cic. Contră nătūram, contrary to nature. Cic. Intră mūros, within the walls. Cic. Post castra, bhind the camp. Caes. Secundum nătūram, according to nature. Cic. Trāns Alpes, across the Alps. Cic.

Note 1.-Exadversus (um) also occurs with the Accusative:

Exadversus eum locum, over against that place. Cic. See also 437.

Note 2.— Versus (um) and usque, as adverbs, often accompany prepositions, especially ud and in:

Ad becanum versus, toward the ocean. Caes. Ad meridiem versus, toward the south. Liv. Usque ad castra hostium, even to the camp of the enemy. Caes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Literally, it having been much contested. The participle is used impersonally.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> On the general subject of Prepositions and their Use, see Roby, II., pp. 351-456; Draeger, I., pp. 574-665; Kühner, II., pp. 355-432

NOTE 3.—For propius, prēximē, propior, and prēximus, with the Accusative, see prope, note 2, under 1., below.

Note 4.-For compounds of prepositions, see 372 and 376.

I. The following uses of prepositions with the Accusative deserve notice:1

Ad, to, the opposite of ab, from—(1) to, toward, till; (2) near, at, on: ad mē, 'to me,' 'near me,' 'at my house'; ad urhem, 'to the eity,' 'near the eity'; ad destram, 'on the right'; ad multam noctem, 'till late in the night'; ad lücem, 'till daybreak'; ad hōc, 'besides this,' 'moreover'; ad verbum, 'word for word'; ad hunc modum, 'after this manner'; ad ūltimum, 'at last'; ad ūnum omnēs, 'all to a man,' 'all without exception.'

**Apud**, NEAR, AT, BEFORE, IN THE PRESENCE OF: apud oppidum, 'near or before the town'; apud mê, 'at my house'; sum apud mê, '1 am at home' or '1 am in my right mind'; apud Platônem, 'in the works of Plato.'

Ante, BEFORE, IN FRONT OF, ABOVE, IN PREFERENCE TO: ante suös annös, 'before his time,' 'too early'; ante tempus, 'before the proper time'; ante annum, 'a year before'; ante urbem conditam, 'before the founding of the city'; ante aliös pulcherrimus omnès, 'the most beautiful above all others.'

Circum, circā, circiter, 2 ROUND, AROUND, ABOUT: circum forum, 'around the forum'; circā sē, 'around or with hinself'; circā eandem hōram, 'about the same hour'; circiter merīdiem, 'about midday.'

Note.—Circum, the oldest of these forms, is used only of place; circū, both of place and of time; circiter, rare as a preposition, chiefly of time. They are all freely used as adverbs: circum convenire, 'to gather around'; circū esse, 'to be around'; circūter pars quarta, 'about the fourth part.'

Cis, citrā,3 on this side—cis opposed to trāns, across, on the other side; citrā opposed to ultrā, beyond: cis flumen, 'on this side of the stream'; cis paucos dies, 'within a few days'; citrā vēritātem, 'short of the truth'; citrā auctoritātem, 'without authority.'

Contrā, 3 opposite to, over against, against, contrary to: contrā eās regionss, 'opposite to those regions'; contrā populum, 'against the people'; contrā nātūram, 'eontrary to nature.'

Ergā, 'Toward, to, against: ērgā parentēs, 'toward parents'; odium ērgā Rōmānōs, 'hatred to the Romans'; ērgā rēgem, 'against the king.'

Extrā, outside, -without, free from, except: extrā portam, 'outside the gate'; extrā culpam, 'without fault,' 'free from fault'; extrā ducem, 'except the leader,' besides the leader.'

-Infrā, below, under, beneath, less than, after, later than, opposed to suprā, above: infrā lūnam, beneath the moon'; infrā mē, below me'; infrā trēs pedēs, bess than three feet'; infrā Lycūrgum, after Lycurgus.'

<sup>1</sup> For the form and meaning of prepositions in composition, see 344, 5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> These three forms are all derived from circus, 'a circle' (i. e., from its stem); see 304; 307, note 1.

<sup>&</sup>quot; These are often adverbs.

<sup>4</sup> According to Vanicek, from ê and the root reg in regō; 'in the direction of' (lit, from the direction of). In Tacitus, sometimes in relation to: êrgā domum suam, 'in relation to his own household.'

<sup>5</sup> Infra = infera parte, in the lower part

Inter, Between, among, in the midst of inter urbem et Tiberim, between the city and the Tiber'; inter bonos, among the good'; inter manūs, in the hands, within reach, tangible'; inter nos, between us, in confidence'; inter se amāre, to love one another'; inter se differre, to differ from one another'; inter paucos, inter paucos, especially, preëminently; inter paucos disertus, preëminently eloquent'; inter purparam atque aurum, in the midst of purple and gold.

Intrā, within, less than, below, opposed to extrā, on the outside, without: intrā castra, 'within the eamp'; intrā mē, 'within me'; intrā sē, 'in his mind' or 'in their minds'; intrā centum, 'less than one hundred'; intrā modum, 'within the limit'; intrā fāmam, 'below his reputation.'

**Ob**, BEFORE, IN VIEW OF, IN REGARD TO, ON ACCOUNT OF: ob ocul5s, 'before one's eyes'; ob stultitiam tuam, 'in view of your folly,' or 'in regard to your folly'; ob hanc rem, 'in view of this thing,' 'for this reason,' 'on this account'; quam ob rem, 'in view of which thing,' 'wherefore.'

Per, through, by the aid of: per forum, 'through the forum'; per aliös, 'through others,' 'by the aid of others'; per sē, 'by his own efforts,' also 'in himself,' 'in itself'; per metum, 'through fear'; per actātem, 'in consequence of age'; per lādum, 'sportively'; per vim, 'violently'; per mē licet, 'it is allowable as far as I am concerned' (i. e., I make no opposition).

**Post**, BEHIND, AFTER, SINCE: post montem, 'behind the mountain'; post dedicationem templi, 'after the dedication of the temple'; post hominum memoriam, 'since the memory of man.'

Praeter, 5 Before, along, past, by, beyond, besides, except, contrary to: praeter ocalos, 'before their eyes'; praeter oram, 'along the coast'; praeter ectoros, 'beyond others,' 'more than others'; praeter hace = praeter-ea, 'besides these things,' 'moreover'; praeter me, 'except me'; praeter spem, 'contrary to expectation.'

Prope, propter, NEAR, NEAR BY. Prope, NEAR; propter = propeter, a strengthened form of prope, Very NEAR, Alongside of, also in view of, on account of: prope hostes, 'near the enemy'; prope metum, 'near to fear,' 'almost fearful'; propter mare, 'near the sea'; propter timorem, 'on account of fear'; propter se, 'on his own account,' 'on their own account.'

Note 1.—Prope, as an adverb, is sometimes compined with  $\tilde{a}$ , ab, or ad: prope  $\tilde{a}$  Sicilia, 'near Sicily,' 'not far from Sicily'; prope ad porta, 'near to the gates.'

Note 2.—Like prope, the derivatives propius and prexime, and sometimes even propior and preximus, admit the Accusative;

Propius periculum, nearer to danger. Liv. Proxime deos, very near to the gods.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Formed from in by the ending ter, like prae-ter from prae (434, I.), prop-ter from prope (433, I.), and sub-ter from sub (435, I.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Often equivalent to in meō animō, 'in my mind.'

<sup>3</sup> Sometimes, in his country, or in their country.

<sup>4</sup> In origin kindred to the Greek  $\pi a \rho a$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Formed from prae (434, I.), like in-ter from in; see inter, with foot-note.

<sup>6</sup> See inter, with foot-note.

<sup>?</sup> Perhaps by a construction according to sense, following the analogy of prope, though in most cases a preposition may readily be supplied.

Cte. Prepior montem, nearer to the mountain, Sall. Proximus more, nearest to the sea, Caes.

Secundum, 1 Following, NEXT AFTER, NEXT BEHIND, ALONGSIDE OF, CONFORMING TO, ACCORDING TO, IN FAVOR OF; secundum āram, 'behind the alter'; secundum deos, 'next after the gods'; secundum lādos, 'after the games'; secundum flānen, 'along the river'; secundum nātāram, 'according to nature,' 'following nature'; secundum causam nostram, 'in favor of our cause.'

Suprā, on the top, above, before, too high for; opposed to intra, below: suprā lūnam, 'above the moon'; suprā hanc memoriam, 'before our time'; \* suprā hominem, 'too high for a man.'

**Trāns**, Across, on the other side, opposed to cis, on this side: trāns Rhēnum, 'across the Rhine'; trāns Alpēs, 'on the other side of the Alps.'

Ultrā, beyond, across, on the other side, more than, longer than, after, opposed to citrā, on this side: ültrā cum locum, 'beyond that place'; ültrā pignus, 'more than a pledge'; ültrā pidem, 'beyond belief,' 'ineredible'; ültrā pucrīlēs annos, 'after (beyond) the years of boyhood.'

#### 434. The ABLATIVE is used with-

 $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$  or ab (abs), absque, cōram, cum, dē,  $\tilde{\mathbf{e}}$  or ex, prae, prō, sine, tenus.

Ab urbe, from the city. Caes. Coram conventů, in the presence of the assembly. Nep. Cam Antiochô, with Antiochus. Cie. De forô, from the forum. Cic. Ex Asia, out of Asia. Nep. Sine corde, without a heart. Cie.

Note i.—Many verbs compounded with  $ab, d\bar{c}, \epsilon x$ , or super admit the Ablative dependent upon the preposition, but the preposition is often repeated, $^{\circ}$  or some other preposition of kindred meaning is used:

Abîre magistrătă, to retire from ofice. Tac. Pûgnă excidunt, they retire from the battle. Cacs. De vită decedere, to depart from life. Cic. Decedere ex Asiă, to depart out of Asia. Cic.

Note 2.— $\vec{A}$  and  $\hat{\epsilon}$  are used only before consonants, ab and  $\epsilon x$  before either vowels or consonants. Abs is antiquated, except before  $\ell r$ .

Note 3.—For *cum* appended to the Ablative of a personal pronoun or of a relative, see **184**, 6, and **187**, 2.

NOTE 4.—Tenus follows its case. In its origin it is the Accusative of a noun, and as such it often takes the Genitive:

Collo tenus, up to the neck, Ov. Lumborum tenus, as far as the loins. Cie.

- <sup>1</sup> Properly the neuter of secundus, 'following,' second'; but secundus is a gerund ive from sequor, formed like dicundus from dico (239). For the change of qu to c before u in sec-undus for sequeundus, see 26, foot-note.
- 2 Like the adjective secundus in rentus secundus, 'a favoring wind'—one that (ellows as on our course; flumine secundo, 'with a favoring current' (i. c., down the stream),
  - <sup>3</sup> Suprā =  $\kappa uperā parte$ , 'on the top.'
  - 4 Literally, before this memory. For hic meaning my or our, see 450, 4, note 1.
- <sup>5</sup> Though in such cases the first element of the compound is not strictly a preposition, but an adverb (344, with foot-note). Thus, in  $d\tilde{e}$   $rit\tilde{a}$   $d\tilde{e}c\tilde{e}dere$ ,  $d\tilde{e}$  in the verb retains its adverbial force, so that, strictly speaking, the preposition is used only once.
  - 5 From the root tan, ten, seen in ten-do, ten eo, and in the Greek τειν-ω.

Note 5.—For the Ablative with or without  $d\tilde{e}$ , as used with facio,  $fi\tilde{e}$ , and sum, see 415, III., note.

I. The following uses of prepositions with the Ablative deserve notice:

Ā, ab, ab, from, by, in, on, on the side of. 1. Of Place; from, on, on the side of: ā Galliā, 'from Gaul'; ab ortū, 'from the east'; ā fronte, 'in front' (lit., from the front); ā tergō, 'in the rear'; ab Sēquanīs, 'on the side toward the Sequani.' 2. Of Time; from, after: ab hōrā tertiā, 'from the third hour'; ā puerō, 'from boyhood'; ab cohortātiōne, 'after exhorting.' 3. In other relations; from, by, in, against: ā poenā līber, 'free from punishment'; missus ab Syrācūsīs, 'sent by the Syracusans'; ab equitātu firmus, 'strong in (lit., from) cavalry'; ab animō aeger, 'diseased in mind'; ab ēis dēfendere, 'to defend against (from) them'; esse ab aliquō, 'to be on one's side'; ā nōbīs, 'in our interest'; servus ā pedibus, 'a footman.'

Note.—Absque, rare in classical prose, is found chiefly in Plautus and Terence.

Cum, 2 with, in most of its English meanings: cum patre habitāre, 'to live with one's father'; Caesar cum quinque legionibus, 'Caesar with five legions'; consul cum summo imperio, 'the consul with supreme command'; servus cum telo, 'a slave with a weapon,' 'an armed slave'; cum primā lūce, 'with the early dawn,' 'at the early dawn'; consentire cum aliquo,' to agree with any one'; cum Caesare agere, 'to treat with Caesar'; cum aliquo dimicāre, 'to contend with any one'; multīs cum laerimīs, 'with many tears'; cum virtūte, 'virtuously'; cum eō ut, or cum eō quod, 'with this condition that,' 'on condition that.' See also 419, III.

Dē, down from, from, of. 1. Of Place; down from, from: dē caelō, 'down from heaven'; dē forō, 'from the forum'; dē mājōribus audīre, 'to hear from one's elders.' 2. Of Time; from, out of, during, in, at, affer: dē prandiō, 'from breakfast'; dē diē, 'by day,' 'in the course of the day'; dē tertiā vigiliā, 'during the third watch'; dē mediā nocte, 'at about midnight.' 3. In other relations; from, of, for, on, concerning, according to: dē summō genere, 'of the highest rank'; factum dē marmore sīgnum, 'a bust made of marble'; homō dē plēbe, 'a man of plebeian rank,' 'a plebeian'; triumphus dē Galliā, 'a triumph over (concerning) Gaul'; gravī dē causā, 'for a grave reason'; dē mōre vētustō, 'according to ancient custon'; dē industriā, 'on purpose'; dē integrō, 'anew.' See also 415, III., note 2.

E, ex,3 out of, from. 1. Of Place; out of, from, in, on: ex urbe, 'from the city,' 'out of the city'; ex equō pūgnāre, 'to fight on horseback'; ex rinculis, 'in chains' (lit., out of or from chains); ex itincre, 'on the march.' 2. Of Time; from, directly after, since: ex eō tempore, 'from that time'; ex tempore dicere, 'to speak extemporacously'; diem ex die, 'from day to day.' 3. In other relations; from, out of, according to, on account of, through: ex vulneribus perīre, 'to perish of (because of) wounds'; ūnus ē fīlis, 'one of the sons'; ex eommūtātiōne, 'on account of the change'; ex eōnsuētūdine, 'according to custom'; ē vestīgiō, 'on the spot'; ex parte māgnā, 'in great part'; ex improvīsō, 'unexpectedly.'

Greek ἀπό. <sup>2</sup> Compare Greek ξύν, σύν, with. <sup>3</sup> Compare Greek ἐξ, out of.

Prae, Before, in comparison with, in consequence of, because of: 1 prae manū esse, 'to be at hand'; prae manū habēre, 'to have at hand'; prae se ferre, 'to show, display, exhibit'; prae nobūs beātus, 'happy in comparison with us'; non prae lucrimīs 1 posse, 'not to be able because of tears.'

Prō, BEFORE; IN BEHALF OF, IN DEFENCE OF, FOR; INSTEAD OF, AS; IN RETURN FOR, FOR; ACCORDING TO, IN PROPORTION TO: prō castris, 'before the camp'; prō libertāte, 'in detence of liberty'; prō patriā, 'for the country'; prō cōnsule = prōcōnsul, 'a proconsul' (one acting for a consul); prō certō habère, 'to regard as certam', prō eō, quod, 'for the reason that,' 'because'; prō tuā prūdentaā, 'in accordance with your prudence'; prō imperiō, 'imperiously', prō eò quisque, 'each according to his ability.'

#### 435. The Accusative of Ablative is used with—

In, sub, subter, super:

In Asiam profugit, he fled into Asia. Cic. Hannibal in Îtaliă fuit, Hunnibal was in Italy. Nep. Sub montem, toward the mountain. Caes. Sub monte, at the foot of the mountain. Liv. Subter togam, under the toga. Liv. Subter testudine, under a tortoise or shed. Verg. Super Numidiam, beyond Numidia. Sall. Hae super re scribam, I shall write on this subject. Cic.

Note 1.-In and sub take the Accusative after verbs implying motion, the Ablative after those implying rest; see examples.

Note 2.—Subter and super generally take the Accusative: but super, when it means concerning, of, on (of a subject of discourse), takes the Ablative; see examples.

I. The following uses of in, sub, subter, and super deserve notice:

In, with the Accusative, INTO, TO, TOWARD, TILL. 1. Of Place; INTO, TO, TOWARD, AGAINST, IN: ire in urbem, 'to go into the city'; in Persäs, 'into the country of the Persians'; in āram, 'to the altar'; ûnum in locum convenire, 'to meet in one place' (380, with note). 2. Of Time; INTO, TO, FOR, TILL: in noctem, 'into the night'; in multam noctem, 'until late at night'; in diem, 'into the day,' also 'for the day'; in dies, 'from day to day,' 'daily'; invitāre in posterum diem, 'to invite for the following day.' 3. In other relations; INTO, AGAINST, TOWARD, ON, FOR, AS, IN: divisa in partes très, 'divided into three parts'; in hostem, 'against the enemy'; in id certāmen, 'for this contest'; in memorium patris, 'in memory of his father'; in spem pācis, 'in the hope of peace'; in rem esse, 'to be useful,' 'to be to the purpose.'

In, with the Ablative, in, on, at. 1. Of Place; in, at, within, amono, upon: in urbe, 'in the city'; in Persis, 'among the Persians'; sapientissimus in septem, 'the wisest among or of the seven.' 2. Of Time; in, at, during, in the course of: in tālī tempore, 'at such a time'; in tempore, 'in time.' 3. In other relations; in, on, upon, in the case of: esse in armīs, 'to be in arms'; in summō timōre, 'in the greatest fear'; in hōc homine, 'in the case of this man.'

Sub, with the Accusative, UNDER, BENEATH, TOWARD, UP TO, ABOUT, DIRECT-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This causal meaning is developed from the local. The noun in the Ablative is thought of as an obstacle or hindrance: non prace lacrimis posse, 'not to be able before, in the presence of, because of such a hindrance as tears.'

LY AFTER: sub jugum mittere, 'to send under the yoke'; sub nostram aciem, 'toward our line'; sub astra, 'up to the stars'; sub vesperum, 'toward evening'; sub câs litterâs, 'directly after that letter'; sub imperium redâctus, 'brought under one's sway.'

Sub, with the Ablative, UNDER, AT, AT THE FOOT OF, IN, ABOUT: sub terrā, 'under the earth'; sub pellibus, 'in tents'; 'sub brūmā, 'at the time of the winter solstice'; sub lūce, 'at dawn'; sub hōc verbō, 'under this word'; sub iūdice, 'in the hands of the judge' (i. e., not yet decided).

Note.—Subter, a strengthened form 2 of sub, meaning under, generally takes the Accusative, though it admits the Ablative in poetry: subter mare, 'under the sea'; subter togam, 'under the toga'; subter densa iestādine, 'under a compact testudo.'

Super, with the Accusative, OVER, UPON, ABOVE: sedens super arma, 'sitting upon the arms'; super Numidiam, 'beyond Numidia'; super sexāgintā mīlia, 'upward of sixty thousand'; super nātūram, 'supernatural'; super omnia, 'above all.'

**Super**, with the Ablative, upon, at, during, concerning, of, on: strātō super ostrō, 'upon purple couches' (lit., upon the spread purple); nocte super mediā, 'at midnight'; hāe super rē serībere, 'to write upon this subject'; muīta super Priamō royitāns, 'asking many questions about Priam.'

Note.—The Ablative is rare with  $\varepsilon uper$ , except when it means concerning.about, on (of the subject of discourse). It is then the regular construction.

436. Prepositions were originally adverbs (307, note 1), and many of the words generally classed as prepositions are often used as adverbs <sup>3</sup> in classical authors:

Ad milibus quattuor, about four thousand. Caes. Omnia contra circaque, all things opposite and around. Liv. Prope a Sicilia, not far from Sicily. Cic. Juxta positus, placed near by. Nep. Supra, infra esse, to be abore, below. Cic. Nee citra nee ultra, neither on this side nor on that side. Ov.

- 437. Conversely, several words generally classed as adverbs are sometimes used as prepositions. Such are—
- 1. With the Accusative, propius, proxime, pridie, postridie, usque, desuper:

Propius periculum, nearer to danger. Liv. Pridie Idus, the day before the Ides. Cie. Usque pedes, even to the feet. Curt.

2. With the Ablative, intus, palam, procul, simul (poetie):

Tali mtus templo, within such a temple. Verg. Palam populo, in the presence of the people. Liv. Procul castris, at a distance from the camp. Tac. Simul his, with these. Hor.

3. With the Accusative or Ablative, clam, insuper:

Clam patrem, without the father's knowledge. Plant. Clam vobis, without your knowledge. Caes.

<sup>1</sup> That is, in camp (lit., under skins).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Formed from sub, like in-ter from in; see 433, I., inter, foot-note.

<sup>3</sup> They are, in fact, sometimes adverbs and sometimes prepositions.

## CHAPTER III.

## SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

### RULE XXXIV .- Agreement of Adjectives.

438. An adjective agrees with its noun in GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE:

Fortūna caeca est, fortune is blind. Cic. Vērae amīcitiae, true friend-ships. Cic. Magister optimus, the best teacher. Cic. Quā in rē prīvātās injūriās ultus est, in which thing he avenged private wrongs. Caes. Sõl oriēns diem conficit, the sun rising makes the day. Cic.

- Adjective Pronouns and Participles are Adjectives in construction, and accordingly conform to this rule, as in qua in re, sol ordens.
- 2. When an adjective unites with the verb (generally sum) to form the predicate, as in caeca est, 'is blind,' it is called a Predicate Adjective (360, note 1); but when it simply qualifies a noun, as in virae amiculiae, 'true friendships,' it is called an Attributive Adjective.
- 3. Agreement with Clause, etc.—An adjective may agree with any word or words used substantively, as a pronoun, clause, infinitive, etc.:

Quis clarior, who is more illustrious? Cie. Certum est liberos amari, it is certain that children are loved. Quint. See 42, note.

 ${\bf Note.-An}$  adjective agreeing with a clause is sometimes plural, as in Greek :

Ut Aenēās jaetētur nota tibi, how Aeneas is tossed about is known to you. Verg.

 $^{\circ}$  4. A Neuter Adjective used as a substantive sometimes supplies the place of a Predicate Adjective :  $^{1}$ 

Mors est extremum, death is the last thing. Cie. Triste lupus stabulis, a wolf is a sail thing for the flocks. Verg.

5. A Neuter Adjective with a Genitive is often used instead of an adjective with its noun, especially in the Nominative and Accusative:

Multum operae, much service.<sup>2</sup> Cic. I-d temporis, that time.<sup>2</sup> Cic. Vāna rērum, vain things.<sup>2</sup> Hor. Opāca viārum, dark streets. Verg. Strāta viārum, paved streets. Verg. See also 397, 3, note 4.

6. SYNESIS.3—Sometimes the adjective or participle conforms to the *real meaning* of its noun, without regard to grammatical gender or number:

Pars certare parati, a part (some), preparel to contend. Verg. Insperanti and bis, to us (me) not expecting it. Catul. Demosthenes cum ceteris erant expulsi, Demosthenes with the others had been banished. Nep.

<sup>1</sup> As in Greek: οὐκ ἀγαθὸν πολυκοιρανίη, the rule of the many is not a good thing.

Multum operae = multa opera or multam operam; id temporis = id tempus; vana rērum = vanae rēs or vānās rēs.

<sup>3</sup> A construction according to sense; see 636, IV., 4.

<sup>4</sup> Parātī is plural, to conform to the meaning of pars, 'part,' 'some,' plural in sense;

NOTE.—In the Ablative Absolute (431) absente and praesente occur in early Latin with a plural noun or pronoun; 1

Praesente 1 ibus (\$\epsilon is, 10 in their presence (lit., they being present). Plaut. Praesente testibus, in the presence of witnesses. Plaut.

7. AGREEMENT WITH ONE NOUN FOR ANOTHER.—When a noun governs another in the Genitive, an adjective belonging in sense to one of the two nouns, sometimes agrees with the other:

Mājōra (for mājōrum) rērum initia, the beginnings of greater things. Liv. Cursus jūsti (jūstus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.

Note 1.—In the passive forms of verbs the participle sometimes agrees with a predicate noun or with an appositive; see 462.

Note 2.—An adjective or participle predicated of an Accusative is sometimes attracted into the Nominative to agree with the subject:

Ostendit se dextra (for dextram), she shows herself favorable, Verg.

439. An adjective or participle, belonging to Two or More Nouns, may agree with them all *conjointly*, or may agree with *one* and be understood with the others:

Castor et Pollux visī sunt, Castor and Pollux were seen. Cic. Dubitāre vīsus est Sulpicius et Cotta, Sulpicius and Cotta seemed to doubt. Cic. Temeritās īgnorātione vitiosa est. rashness and ignorance are bad. Cic.

1. The Attributive Adjective generally agrees with the nearest noun:

Agri omnes et maria, all lands and seas. Cie. Cuneta maria terraeque, all seas and lands. Sall.

2. A plural adjective or participle, agreeing with two or more nouns of different genders, is generally masculine when the nouns denote persons or sentient beings, and in other cases generally neuter:

Pater et mäter mortui sunt, father and mother are dead. Ter. Honores, victoriae fortuita sunt, honors and victories are accidental things. Cic. Labor voluptasque inter se sunt juncta, labor and pleasure are joined together. Liv.

Note.—When nouns denoting sentient beings are combined with those denoting things, the plural adjective or participle in agreement with them sometimes takes the gender of the former and sometimes of the latter, and sometimes is neuter irrespective of the gender of the nouns:

Rëx rëgiaque clässis profecti sunt, the king and the royal fleet set out. Liv. Rëgem rëgnuinque sua futura sciunt, they know that the king and the kingdom will be theirs. Liv. Inimica <sup>3</sup> inter së sunt libera civitäs et rëx, a free state and a king are hostile to each other. Liv.

3. With nouns denoting inanimate objects, the adjective or participle is often neuter, irrespective of the gender of the nouns:

Labor et dolor sunt finitima, labor and pain are kindred (things). Cic.

inspéranti is singular, because nobis is here applied to one person, the speaker (446, note 2); expulsi is plural, because Démosthenés cum cèteris means Demosthenes and the others.

- <sup>1</sup> In this construction absente and praesente appear to be treated as adverbs.
- <sup>2</sup> See p. 73, foot-note 2.
- 3 Perhaps best explained substantively-things hostile; see 438, 4.

Nox atque praeda hostis remorata sunt, wight and plunder detained the enemy. Sall.

4. Two or More adjectives in the singular may belong to a plural noun:
Prima et vicesima legiones, the first and the twentieth legions. Tae,

Note.—In the same way two or more  $praenomina^{-1}$  in the singular may be combined with a family name in the plural.

Gnaeus et Publius Scipiones, Gnaeus and Publius Scipio, Cic. Publius et Servius Sullae, Publius and Servius Sulla Sall.

#### Use of Adjectives.

- 440. The adjective in Latin corresponds in its general use to the adjective in English.
- 1. In Latin, as in English, an adjective may qualify the complex idea formed by a noun and another adjective:

Duae potentissimae gentēs, two very powerful raees. Liv. Māgnum aes aliēnum, a large debt. Cic. Nāvēs longās trīgintā veterēs, thirty old vessels of war. Liv.<sup>2</sup>

Note.—In general no connective is used when adjectives are combined, as in duae potentissimae gentes, etc.; but if the first adjective is multi or pturimi, the connective is usually inserted:

Multae et magnae cogitationes, many great thoughts. Cic. Multa et praeclara facinora, many illustrious déeds. Sall.

2. Prolepsis or Anticipation.—An adjective is sometimes applied to a noun to denote the result of the action expressed by the verb:

Submersus obrue puppes, overwhelm and sink the ships (lit., overwhelm the sunken ships). Verg. Seuta latentia condunt, they conceal their hidden shields. Verg.

Note 1.—Certain adjectives often designate a particular part of an object: prima nox, the first part of the night;  $medi\bar{a}$  aestāte, in the middle of summer;  $summus\ m\bar{o}ns$ , the top (highest part) of the mountain.

Note 2.—The adjectives thus used are primus, medius, ūltimus, extrêmus, postrēmus, intimus, summus, infimus, īmus, suprēmus, rētiquus, citera, etc.

Note 3.—In the poets, in Livy, and  $\ln$  late prose writers, the neuter of these adjectives with a Genitive sometimes occurs:

Libyae extrêma, the frontiers of Libya. Verg. Ad ultimum inepiae (for ad ultimum inepiae), to extreme destitution. Liv.

Note 4.—Adjectives are often combined with REs: res adversae, adversity; res secundae, prosperity; res norae, revolution; res pública, republic.

<sup>1</sup> For Roman names, see 649.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Here duae qualifies not simply gent's, but potentissimae gent's; māgnum qualifies aes aliënum, 'debt' (lit., money belonging to another); reter's qualifies nārēs longās, 'vessels of war' (lit., 'long vessels'), while trīgintā qualifies the still more complex expression, nārēs longās veter's.

<sup>3</sup> Observe that submersus gives the result of the action denoted by obrue, and is not applicable to puppes until that action is performed; tatenti. likewise gives the result of condunt.

## 441. Adjectives and participles are often used substantively:1

Bonī, the good; mortālēs, mortals; dōctī, the learned; sapientēs, the wise; multī, many persons; multa, many things; praefectus, a prefect; nātus, a son.²

- 1. In the plural, masculine adjectives and participles often designate PERSONS, and nenter adjectives THINGS: fortes, the brave; divit's, the rich; pauperis, the poor; multi, many; pauci, few; omnes, all; mei, my friends; discent's, learners; spectant's, spectators; futura, future events; ūtilia, useful things; mea, nostra, my things, our things; omnes, all things; have, illa, these things, toose things.
- 2. In the singular, adjectives and participles are occasionally used substantively, especially in the Genitive, or in the Accusative or Ablative with a preposition: dôctus, a learned man; adulēscēns, a young man; xērum, a true thing, the truth; falseum, a falsehood; nihil sine rī, nothing of sine rity, nothing sine re; nihil humānī, nothing human; nihil rēliquī, nothing left; a aliquid novī, something new; ā prīmō, from the beginning; ad extrēmum, to the end; ad summum, to the highest point; dē integrō, afresh; dē imprōvīsō, unexpectedly; ex aequō, in like manner; in praesentī, at present; in futurum, for the future; prō cerō, as certain.

Note 1 .- For the neuter participle with opus and usus, see 414, IV., note 3.

- HOTE 2.—For the use of adjectives instead of nouns in the Genitive, see 395, note 2.
- E. A few substantives are sometimes used as adjectives, especially verbal nouns in ter and trīw; 5 vīetor exercitus, a victorious army; homō gladiātor, a gladiator, a gladiator, a gladiator, in rīctrēcēs Athēnac, victorious (conquering) Athens; populus lātē rēx, a people of extensive sway.<sup>6</sup>
- 442. Equivalent to a Clause.—Adjectives, like nouns in apposition, are sometimes equivalent to clauses:

Nemő saltat söbrius, no one dances when he is sober, or when sober. Cic. Hortensium vivum amáví, I loved Hortensius, while he was alive. Cic. llomő nünquam söbrius, a man who is never sober. Cic.

Note.—*Prior, prīmus, ūltimus, postrēmus*, are often bestrendered by a relative clause: Primus mōrem solvit, *he was the first who broke the custom.*<sup>7</sup> Liv.

## 443. Adjectives and Adverbs.—Adjectives are sometimes used where our idiom employs adverbs:

Socrates venenum lactus hausit, Socrates cheeffully drank the poison. Sen. Senatus frequens convenit, the senate assembled in great numbers. Cic. Roseius erat Romae frequens, Roseius was frequently at Rome. Cic.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> That is, words which were originally adjectives or participles sometimes become *substantives*; indeed, many substantives were originally adjectives; see 323, foot-note; 324, foot-note.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Pruefectus, from praeficiö (lit., one appointed over); nätus, from näscor (lit., one born).

<sup>3</sup> See 397, 1. For nihil rěliqui facere, see 401, note 4.

<sup>4</sup> Numerous adverbial expressions are thus formed by combining the neuter of adjectives with prepositions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> That is, these words are generally substantives, but sometimes adjectives.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See Verg., Aen., I., 21.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> With the adverb primum the thought would be, he first broke the custom (i. e., before doing anything else). Compare the corresponding distinction between the Greek adjective πρῶτος and the adverb πρῶτος.

Note 1.—The adjectives chiefly thus used are—(1) Those expressive of joy, knowledge, and their opposites: lactus, libens, invitus, tristis, sciens, insciens, prudens, imprüdens, etc. (2) Nullus, selus, totus, unus; prior, primus, propior, primus, etc.

Note 2.—In the poets a few adjectives of time and place are used in the same manner: Domesticus ōtior, I idle about home. Hor. Vespertinus pete tectum, at evening seek your abode. Hor.

Note 3.—In rare instances adverbs seem to supply the place of adjectives:

Omnia rècté sunt, all things are mont. Cic. Non ignais sumus ante malorum, 1 we are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Verg. Nanc hominum 1 morès, the character of men of the present day. Plant.

Note 4.—Numeral adverbs often occur with titles of office: 2

Flaminius, consuliterum, Flaminius, when consul for the second time. Cie.

444. A comparison between two objects requires the comparative degree; between more than two, the superlative:

Prior horum, the former of these (two). Nep. Gallorum fortissimi, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes.

1. The comparative sometimes has the force of too, unusually, somewhat, and the superlative, the force of very: doction, too learned, or somewhat learned; doctissimus, very learned.

Note.—Certain superlatives are common as titles of honor: clārissimus, nōbilissimus, and summus—especially applicable to men of consular or senatorial rank; fortissimus, honestissimus, illustrissimus, and splendidissimus—especially applicable to those of the equestrian order.

2. Comparative after Quam.—When an object is said to possess one quality in a higher degree than another, the two adjectives thus used either may be connected by mayis quam 3 or may both be put in the comparative: 4

Disertus magis quam sapiëns, more fluent than wise,<sup>3</sup> Cic. Pracclārum magis quam difficie, more noble than difficult, or noble rather than difficult. Cic. Ditiores quam fortiores, more wealthy than brave.<sup>4</sup> Liv. Clárior quam grátior, more illustrious than pleasing. Liv.

Note 1.—In a similar manner two adverbs may be connected by magis quam, or may both be put in the comparative:

Magis audacter quam parate, with more audacity than preparation. Cic. Bellum fortius quam felicius gerere, to wage war with more rator than success. Liv.

NOTE 2.—The form with magis, both in adjectives and in adverbs, may sometimes be best rendered rather than:

Ars magis magna quam difficilis, an art extensive rather than difficult. Cic. See also the second example under 2, above.

Note 3.—In the later Latin the *positive* sometimes follows quam, even when the regular comparative precedes, and sometimes two positives are used:

Vehementius quam caute appetere, to seek more eagerly than cautiously. Tac. Claris quam vetustis, illustrious rather than ancient. Tac.

Note 4.—For the use of comparatives before quam pro, see 417, 1, note 5.

- 1 Like the Greek των πρίν κακών and των νῦν ἀνθρώπων,
- <sup>2</sup> The want of a present participle in the verb sum brings these adverbs into close connection with nouns.
  - 3 As in English, more fluent than wise. This is the usual method in Cicero.
- As In Greek, πλείονες η βελτίονες, more numerous than good. This method, common in Livy, is rare in the earlier writers.

3. Strengthening Words.—Comparatives and superlatives are often strengthened by a preposition with its case, as by anle, prae, praeter, suprā (417, 1, note 3). Comparatives are also often strengthened by eliam, even, still; multī, mueh; and superlatives by longē, multī, by far, much; vel, even; ūnus omnium, alone, alone of all, without exception, far, by far; quam, quam or quantus with the verb possum, as possible; tam quam quī, ut quī, as possible (lit., as he who):

Mājōrēs etiam varietātēs, even greater varieties. Cic. Multō etiam gravius queritur, he complains even much more bitterly. Caes. Multō māxima pars, by far the largest part. Cic. Quam sacpissimē, as often as possible. Cic. Ūnus omnium dēctissimus, without exception the most learned of men. Cic. Kēs ūna omnium difficilina at thing by far the most difficult of all. Cic. Quam māximae cōpiae, forces as large as possible. Sall. Quantam māximam potest vastitātem ostendit, he exhibits the greatest possible desolation (lit., as great us the greatest he can). Liv.

## CHAPTER IV.

## SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

### RULE XXXV.-Agreement of Pronouns.

445. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender, number, and person:

Animal quod sanguinem habet, an animal which has blood. Cic. Ego,  $qu\bar{\imath}$  tō cōnfirmō, I who encourage you. Cic. Vīs est in virtūtibus, eās excitā, there is strength in virtues, arouse them. Cic.

Note.—The antecedent is the word or words to which the prononn refers, and whose place it supplies. Thus, in the examples under the rule, animal is the autocedent of quod; ego, of qui; and virtutibus, of  $e\bar{a}s$ .

- 1. This rule applies to all pronouns when used as nouns. Pronouns used as adjectives conform to the rule for adjectives; see 438.
- 2. When the antecedent is a demonstrative in agreement with a personal pronoun, the relative agrees with the latter:

Tũ es is quĩ mẽ ôrnăstĩ, you are the one who commended me. Cic.

3. When a relative, or other pronoun, refers to two or more antecedents, it generally agrees with them conjointly, but it sometimes agrees with the nearest:

Pietās, virtūs, fidēs, quārum 1 Rōmae templa sunt, piety, virtue, and faith, whose temples are at Rome. Cic. Peccātum āc culpa, quae, 1 error and fault, winen. Cic.

<sup>1</sup> Quārum agrees with pictīs, virtūs, and fidēs conjointly, and is accordingly in the plural; but quae agrees simply with culpa.

NOTE 1.—With antecedents of different genders, the pronoun conforms in gender to the rule for adjectives (439, 2 and 3):

Pueri mulicresque qui, boys and women who. Caes. Inconstantia et temeritäs, quae digna non sunt deo, inconstancy and rashness which are not worthy of a god. Cie.

Note 2.—With antecedents of different persons, the pronoun prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third, conforming to the rule for verbs (463, 1):

Ego ac tũ inter  $n \delta s^2$  loquimur, you and I converse together. Tac. Et tũ et collègao tuĩ,  $q u \tilde{\imath}^2$  spērāstis, both you and your colleagues, who hoped. Cic.

4. By Attraction, a pronoun sometimes agrees with a Predicate Noun or an Appositive instead of the antecedent:

Animal quem (for quod) vocamus hominem, the animal which we call man. Cic. Thebae, quod (quae) caput est, Thebes, which is the capital. Liv. Eu (id) erat confessio, that (i. c., the action referred to) was a confession. Liv. Flumen Rhenus, qui, the river Rhine, which. Caes.

5. By SYNESIS, the pronoun is sometimes construed according to the real meaning of the antecedent, without regard to grammatical form; and sometimes it refers to the class of objects to which the antecedent belongs:

Quia fessum militem habébat, hīs quiétem dedit, as he had an exhausted soldiery, he gave them (these) a rest. Liv. Equitâtus, qui vidérunt, the caralry who saw. Caes. Dé alia re, quod ad me attinet, in regard to another thing which pertains to me. Plant. Earum rerum utrumque, each of these things. Cie. Démocritum omittâmus; apud istos; let us omit Democritus; with such (i. e., as he). Cie.

6. Antecedent Omittee.—The antecedent of the relative is often omitted when it is indefinite, is a demonstrative pronoun, or is implied in a possessive pronoun, or in an adjective:

Sunt qui censeant, there are some who think. Cic. Terra reddit quod accepit, the earth returns what it has received. Cic. Vestrā, qui eum integritāte vixīstis, hoc interest, this interests you who have lived with integrity. Cic-Servilis tumultus quos, the revolt of the slaves whom. Caes.

7. CLAUSE AS ANTECEDENT.—When the antecedent is a sentence or clause, the pronoun, unless attracted (445, 4), is in the Neuter Singular, but the relative generally adds *id* as an appositive to such antecedent:

Nos, id quod debet, patria delectat, our country delights us, as it ought lit., that which it oves). Cic. Regem, quod nunquam antea acciderat, need-verunt, they put their king to death, which had never before happened. Cic.

8. Relative Attracted.—The relative is sometimes attracted into the case of the antecedent, and sometimes agrees with the antecedent repeated:

Jūdice quo (for quem) nosti, the judge whom you know. Hor. Dies instat,

<sup>1</sup> Qut agrees with pueri and mulieris conjointly, and is in the masculine, according to 439, 2; but quae is in the neuter, according to 439, 3.

<sup>2</sup> Nos, referring to eyo āc ti, is in the first person; while qui, referring to tù et colligae, is in the second person, as is shown by the verb spirāstis.

In these examples, the pronouns quem, quod, and ea are uttracted, to agree with their predicate nouns, hominem, caput, and confessio; but qui agrees with the apportive, Rhēnus.

quō die, the day is at hand, on which day. Caes. Camae, quam urbem tenebant, Cumae, which city they held. Liv.

9. Antecedent Attracted.—In poetry, rarely in prose, the antecedent is sometimes attracted into the case of the relative; and sometimes incorporated in the relative clause with the relative in agreement with it:

Urbem, quam statuō, vestra est, the city which I am building is yours. Verg. Malārum, qu.s amor cūrās habet, obliviscī (for malārum cūrārum quas), to forget the wretched cares which love has. Hor. Quōs vōs implorāre döbētis, ut, quam urbem puleherrimam esse voluērum, hane 2 dēfendamt, these (lit., whom) you ought to implore to defend this city, which they wished to be most beautiful. Cie.

#### Use of Pronouns.

## 446. Personal Pronouns.—The Nominative of Personal Pronouns is used only for emphasis or contrast: 3

Sīgnificāmus quid sentiāmus, we show what we think. Cie. Ego rēgēs ējēci, võs tyrannös intrōdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cie.

Note 1.—With quidem the pronoun is usually expressed, but not with equidem:

Facis amicë tu quidem, you act indeed in a friendly manner. Cic. Non dubitabam equidem, I did not doubt indeed. Cic.

Note 2.—A writer sometimes speaks of himself in the plural, using  $n\bar{o}s$  for ego, noster for meus, and the plural verb for the singular;

Vides nos (for mē) multa cônări, you see that we (for 1) are attempting many things. Cic. Sermô explicabit nostram (for meam) sententiam, the conversation will unfold our (my) opinion. Cic. Diximus (for dixī) multa, I have said many things. Cic.<sup>4</sup>

Note 3.—Nostr $\bar{\iota}$  and  $vestr\bar{\iota}$  are generally used in an objective sense; nostr $\bar{\iota}m$  and  $vestr\bar{\iota}m$  in a partitive sense:

Habētis ducem memorem vestrī, you have a leader mindful of your interests (of you). Cic. Minus habeō vīrium quam vestrūm utervīs, I have less strength than either of you. Cic. Quis nostrūm, who of us? Cic.

Note 4.—With ab, ad, or apud, a personal pronoun may designate the residence or abode of a person:

A nöbis égreditur, he is coming from our nouse. Ter. Vêni ad mê, I came to my nouse. Cic. Eamus ad mê, let us go to my house. Ter. Apud tê est, he is at your house. Cic. Rûrî apud sê est, he is at his residence in the country. Cic. See also 433, 1, ad, apud, etc.

447. Possessive Pronouns, when not emphatic, are seldom expressed, if they can be supplied from the context:

Manus lavă, wash your hands. Cie. Mihi mea vita căra est, my life is dear to me. 9 Plaut.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For other examples, see Verg., Aen., V., 28-30; Hor., Sat., I., 10, 16.

<sup>2</sup> Quam urbem, hanc = hanc urbem, quam.

<sup>3</sup> The learner will remember that a pronominal subject is actually contained in the ending of the verb; see 368, 2, foot-note.

<sup>4</sup> For other examples, see Hor., Sat., I., 9, 7, and Car., I., 32.

<sup>5</sup> In this example mea is expressed for emphasis.

Note 1.—Possessive Pronouns sometimes mean favorable, propitious, as alienus eften means un favorable:

Vādimus haud nūmine nostro, we advance under a divinity not propitious. Verg. Tempore tuo pūguāsti, you fought at a favorable time. Liv. Ferunt sua flāmina clāssem, favorable winds bear the fleet. Verg. Alično loco proclium committunt, they engage in battle in an unfavorable place. Cacs.

Note 2.—For the Possessive Pronoun in combination with a Genitive, see 398, 3.

448. Reflexive Use of Pronouns,—Sui and suus have a reflexive sense; 'sometimes also the other personal and possessive pronouns:

Miles se ipsum interfecit, the soldier killed himself. Tac. Telo se defendit, he defends himself with a weapon. Cic. Sua vi movetur, he is moved by his own power. Cic. Me consolor, I console myself. Cic. Vos vestra tecta defendite, defend your houses. Cic.

Note.—Inter nos, inter vos, inter so, have a reciprocal force, each other, one another, together; but instead of inter so, the noun may be repeated in an oblique case:

Colloquimur inter nos, we converse together. Cic. Amant inter se, they toxe one another. Cic. Homines hominibus utiles sunt, men are useful to men (i. e., to each other). Cic.

449. Suī and suus generally refer to the Subject of the clause in which they stand:

Se diligit, he loves himself. Cic. Justitia propter sese colenda est, justice should be cultivated for its own sake. Cic. Annulum suum dedit, he gave his ring. Nep. Per se sibi quisque carus est, every one is in his very nature (through or in himself) dear to himself. Cic.

1. In Subordinate Clauses expressing the sentiment of the principal subject, sui and suus generally refer to that subject:

Sentit animus sẽ vĩ suấ moyêrĩ, the mind perceives that it is moved by its own power. Cic. Ā mẽ petivit ut sẽcum essem, he asked (from) me to be with him (that I would be). Cic. Pervestigat quid sui civês côgitent, he tries to ascertain what his fellow-citizens think. Cic.

1) As sui and suus thus refer to subjects, the demonstratives, is, ille, etc., generally refer either to other words, or to subjects which do not admit sui and suus:

Denm agnoscis ex ējus operibus, you recognize a god by (from) his works. Cic. Obligat civitātem nihil eos mutātūros, he binds the state not to change anything (that they will). Just.

2) In some subordinate clauses the writer may at pleasure use either the rellexive or the demonstrative, according as he wishes to present the thought as that of the principal subject, or as his own:

Persuadent Tulingis uti cum iis 2 proficiscantur, they persuade the Tulingi to depart with them. Caes.

3) Sometimes reflexives and demonstratives are used without any apparent distinction:

<sup>1</sup> Sui, of himself; sibi, for himself; se, himself,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Here cum is s is the proper language for the writer without reference to the sentiment of the principal subject; sēcum, which would be equally proper, would present the thought as the sentiment of that subject.

Caesar Fabium cum legione suă 1 remittit, Caesar sends back Fabius and (with) his legion. Caes. Omitto Isocratem discipulosque ējus, 1 I omit Isocrates and his disciples. Cic.

2. Suus, in the sense of His own, Fitting, etc., may refer to subject or object:

Justitia suum cuique tribuit, justice gives to every man his due (his own). Cic.

3. SYNESIS.—When the subject of the verb is not the real agent of the action, suī and suus refer to the agent:

 $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$  Caesare invîtor sibî ut sim lēgātus, I am invited by Caesar (real agent) to be his lieutenant. Cic.

4. The Plural of Suus, meaning His Friends, Their Friends, Their Possessions, etc., is used with great freedom, often referring to oblique cases:

Fuit hoc luctuosum suis, this was afflicting to his friends.2 Cie.

5. Sti and Stus sometimes refer to an omitted subject:

Déforme est de se praedicare, to boast of one's self is disgusting. Cic.

6. Two Reflexives.—Sometimes a clause has one reflexive referring to the principal subject, and another referring to the subordinate subject:

Respondit neminem secum sine sna pernicie contendisse, he replied that no one had contended with him without (his) destruction. Caes.

450. Demonstrative Pronouns.—*Hic, iste, ille,* are often called respectively demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons, as *hic* designates that which is near the speaker; *iste,* that which is near the person addressed; and *ille,* that which is remote from both:

Custos hūjus urbis, the guardian of this city (i. e., of our city). Cic. Mūtī istam mentem, change that purpose of yours. Cic. Ista quae sunt ā tē dieta, those things which were spoken by you. Cic. Sī illos, quos vidēre non possumus, neglegis, if you disregard those (far away, yonder) whom we can not ree. Cic.

1. He designates an object conceived as near, and ille as remote, whether in space, time, or thought:

Non antiquo illo more, sed hoc nostro fuit éruditus. he was educated, not in that ancient, but in this our modern way. Cic. Hoc illud fuit, was it (that) this? Verg.

Note.—The idea of contempt often implied in clauses with iste is not strictly contained in the pronoun itself, but derived from the context; 4

Animī est ista mollities, non virtūs, that is an effeminate spirit, not valor. Caes.

- ¹ Observe that the reflexive is used in the first example, and the demonstrative in the second, though the cases are entirely alike.
  - <sup>2</sup> Here suīs refers to an oblique case in the preceding sentence.
- 3 Here se refers to the subject of respondit, and sua to neminem, the subject of the subordinate clause.
  - 4 The idea of *contempt* is readily explained by the fact that *iste* is often applied to "opponent, to a defendant before a court of justice, and the like.

2. Former and Latter.—In reference to two objects previously mentioned, (1) hie generally follows ille and refers to the latter object, while ille refers to the jormer; but (2) hie may precede and may refer to the jormer, and ille refer to the latter:

Inlinici, amici; illi, hi, enemies, friends; the former, the latter. Cic. Certa pāx, spērāta victoria; hace (pāx) in tuā, illa in deōrum potestāte est, sure peace, hoped-for victory; the former is in your power, the latter in the power of the gods. Liv.

Note.— $H\bar{h}c$  refers to the former object, when that object is conceived of as nearer in thought, either because of its importance, or because of its close connection with the subject under discussion.

3. Hie and alle are often used of what immediately follows in discourse:

His verbis epistulam misit, he sent a letter in these words (i. e., in the following words). Nep. Illud intellego, omnium ora in mé conversa esse, thus I understand, that the eyes of all are turned upon me. Sall.

4. Ille is often used of what is WELL KNOWN, FAMOUS:

Měděa illa, that well-known Medea. Cie. Ego, ille ferőx, tacui, I, that haughty one, was silent. Ovid.

Note 1.—Hic is sometimes equivalent to meus or noster, rarely to ego, and hic homb to ego:

Suprā hanc memoriam, before our time (lit., before this memory). Cic. His meis litteris, with this letter of mine (from me). Cic. Hie homost omnium hominum, etc., of all men I am, etc. (lit., this man is). Plant.

Note 2.—Hic, ille, and is are sometimes redundant, especially with quidem:

Scipi) non multum ille dicēbat, Scipio did not indeed say much. Cic. Graceī volunt illī quidem, the Greeks indeed desire it. Cic. Ista tranquillitās ca ipsa est beāta vua, that tranquillity is itself a happy life. Cic.

Note 3.—A demonstrative or relative is sometimes equivalent to a Genitive, or to a preposition with its case:  $\hbar ic$  amor = amor  $\hbar ijus$   $r\dot{e}i$ , 'the love of this';  $\hbar aec$   $c\dot{u}ra = c\dot{u}ra$   $d\dot{e}$   $\hbar \dot{c}e$ , 'caré concerning this.'

Note 4.—Adverbs derived from demonstrative pronouns share the distinctive meanings of the pronouns themselves:

Hie plus mali est, quam illic boni, there is more of evil here, than of good there. Ter. See also 304; 305.

451. Is and idem refer to preceding nouns, or are the antecedents of relatives:

Dionysius aufügit, is est in provincia, Dionysius has fled, he is in the province. Cie. Is qui satis habet, he who has enough. Cie. Eadem audire malunt, they prefer to hear the same things. Liv.

I. The pronoun is, the weakest of the demonstratives, is often understood, especially before a relative or a Genitive:

Flebat pater de filli morte, de patris fillus, the father wept over the death of the son, the son over (that) of the father. Cic. See also 445, 6,

<sup>1</sup> Thus, in the last example, have refers to certa pix as the more prominent object in the mind of the speaker, as he is setting forth the advantages of a sure peace over a hoped-for victory.

<sup>2</sup> For other examples, see Verg., Aen., I., 3; III., 490; and XI., 809. For the use of personal pronouns with quirlem, see 446, note 1.

 Is, with a conjunction, is often used for emphasis, like the English, and that too, and that indeed:

Ünam rem explicābō, camque māximam, one thing I will explain, and that too a most important one. Cic. Audīre Cratippum, idque Athēnīs, to hear Cratippus, and that too at Athens. Cic.

3. Idem is sometimes best rendered also, at the same time, at once, both, yet:

Nihil ütile, quod non idem honestum, nothing useful, which is not also honorable. Cic. Cum dieat, negat idem, though he asserts, he yet denies (the same denies). Cic. Rex Anius, rex idem hominum Phoebique sacerdos, King Anius, both king of men and priest of Apollo. Verg.

4. Is-qui means he-who, such-as, such-that;

li sumus, qui esse debemus, we are such as we ought to be. Cic. Ea est gens quae nesciat, the race is such that it knows not. Liv.

5. Idem—qui means the same—who, the same—as; idem—āc (atque, et, que), idem—ut, idem—cum with the Ablative, the same—as;

Eidem mórês, quí, the same manners which or as. Cic. Est idem ic fuit, he is the same as he was. Ter. Eôdem mêcum patre genitus, the son of the same father as I (with me). Tac.

6. For the distinction between is and sull in subordinate clauses, see 449, 1, 2).

## 452. Ipse adds emphasis, generally rendered self:

Ipse Pater fulmina molitur, the Father himself (Jupiter) hurls the thunderbolts. Verg. Ipse 2 dixit, he himself said it. Cic. Ipse Caesar, Caesar himself. Cic. Fac ut të ipsum custodias, see that you quard yourself. Cic.

1. Ipse belongs to the emphatic word, whether subject or object, but with a preference for the subject:

Me ipse consolor, I myself (not another) console myself. Cic. Ipse se quisque diligit, every one (himself) loves himself. Cic. Se ipsum interfecit, he killed himself. Tac.

Note.—Ipse is sometimes accompanied by  $s\bar{e}cum$ , 'with himself,' 'alone,' or by per  $s\bar{e}$ , 'by himself,' 'unaided,' 'in and of himself,' etc.:

Allud genitor secum ipse volutat, the father (Jupiter) himself alone ponders another plan. Verg. Quod est rectum ipsumque per se laudābile, which is right, and in and of itself praisever thy. Cic.

2. Ipse is often best rendered by rery:

Ipse ille Gorgias. that very Gorgias. Cic.

3. With numerals, ipse means just so many, just; so also in nune ipsum, 'just at this time': tum ipsum, 'just at that time':

Trigintă dies ipsī, just thirty days. Cic. Nunc ipsum sine të esse non possum, just at this time I cannot be without you. Cic.

4. Ipse in the Genitive with possessives has the force of own, one's own:

Nostra ipsorum amieitia, our own friendship. Cie. See 398, 3.

5. Ipse in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the principal subject, like an emphatic  $su\bar{\imath}$  or suus:

Lēgātēs mīsit quī ipsī vitam peterent, he sent messengers to ask life for himself. Sall. 6. Et ipse and ipse quoque may often be rendered also, likewise, even he: 3

Alius Achilles natus et ipse dea, another Achilles likewise (lit., himself also) born of a goddess. Verg.

<sup>1</sup> Id, thus used, often refers to a clause, or to the general thought, as in this example.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Applied to Pythagoras by his disciples. *Ipse* is often thus used of a *superior*, as of a *master*, *teacher*, etc.

<sup>3</sup> Compare the Greek καὶ αὐτός.

- For the use of the Nominative ipse in connection with the Ablative Absolute, see
   431, note 3.
- 453. Relative Pronouns.—The relative is often used where the English idiom requires a demonstrative or personal pronoun; sometimes even at the beginning of a sentence:

Rès loquitur ipsa, quae semper valet, the fact itself speaks, and this (which) ever has weight. Cie. Qui proclium committunt, they engage in battle. Caes. Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cie.

1. Relatives and Demonstratives are often correlatives to each other:  $\hbar \bar{t}c-qu\bar{i}$ ,  $iste-qu\bar{i}$ , etc. These combinations generally retain the ordinary force of the separate words, but see  $is-qu\bar{i}$ ,  $idem-qu\bar{i}$ , 451, 4 and 5.

Note.—The nenter quidquid, accompanied by an adjective, a participle, or a Genitive, may be used of persons;

Matrès et quidquid técum invalidum est délige, select the mothers and whaterer feeble persons there are with you (lit, whatever there is with you feeble). Verg. Quidquid erat patrum, whatever fathers there were. Liv. See also 397, 3, note 5.

2. In Two Successive Chauses, the relative may be—(1) expressed in both, (2) expressed in the first and omitted in the second, (3) expressed in the first and followed by a demonstrative in the second:

Nos qui sermoni non interfuissemus et quibes Cotta sententias tràdidisset, we who had not been present at the conversation, and to whom Cota had reported the opinions. Cic. Dunnorix qui principatum obtuicbat ac plebi acceptus erat, Dunnorix, who held the chief authority, and who was acceptable to the common people. Caes. Quae nee haberemus nec his ateremur, which we should neither have nor use. Cic.

Note 1.-Several relatives may appear in successive clauses:

Omnes qui vestitum, qui tecta, qui cultum vitae, qui praesidia contra feras invenerunt, all who introduced (invented) clothing, houses, the refinements of life, protection against wild beasts. Cic.

Note 2.—A relative clause with is is often equivalent to a substantive:  $ii\ qui\ audiunt=auditeres$ , 'heavers,'

3. Two Relatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Artes quas qui tenent, arts, whose possessors (which who possess). Cic.

4. A Relative Clause is sometimes equivalent to the Ablative with pro:

Spēro, quae tua prūdentia est, tē valēre, I hope you are well, such is your prudence (which is, etc.). Cie.

Note.—Quae tua prüdentia est = quă es prüdentiă = pro tuă prüdentiă, means such is your prudence, or you are of such prudence, or in accordance with your prudence, etc.

5. Relative with Adjective.—Adjectives belonging in sense to the antecedent, especially comparatives, superlatives, and numerals, sometimes stand in the relative clause in agreement with the relative:

Väsa, quae pulcherrina viderat, the most beautiful ressels which he had seen (vessels, which the most beautiful he had seen). Cie. De servis suis, quem habuit fidélissimum, mish, he sent the most faithful of the slaves that he had. Nep.

6. The neuter, quod, used as an adverblal Accusative, often stands at the beginning

<sup>1</sup> Of the general or indefinite relative quisquis.

of a sentence or clause, especially before  $s\bar{\imath}, n\bar{\imath}, nisi, ets\bar{\imath},$  and sometimes before quia, quoniam, utinam, etc., to indicate a close connection with what precedes. In translating it is sometimes best omitted, and sometimes best rendered by now, in fact, but, and:

Quod sī ecciderint, but if they should fall.\(^1\) Cie. Quod sī ego rescīvissem id prius, now if I had learned this sooner.\(^1\) Ter.

7. Qui dicitur, qui vocătur, or the corresponding active, quem dicuut, quem vocant, are often used in the sense of so-called, the so-called, what they or you call, etc.:

Vestra quae dicitur vîta, mors est, your so-called life (lit., your, which is called life) is death. Cie. Lex ista quam vocas non est lex, that law, as you call it, is not a law. Cie.

## 454. Interrogative Pronouns.—The Interrogative quis is used substantively; qui, adjectively;

Quis ego sum, who am I? Cic. Quid faciet, what will he do? Cic Qui vir fuit, what kind of a man was he? Cic.

1. Occasionally quis is used adjectively and  $qu\bar{\imath}$  substantively:

Quis rex unquam fuit, what king was there ever? Cic. Qui sis, considera, consider who you are. Cic.

Note.—The neuter, quid, is sometimes used of persons; see 397, 3, note 5.

2. Quin, why, how is it that, etc., is often used adverbially (378, 2), or stands apparently unconnected: "quid, 'why?' 'what?' quid enim, 'why then?' 'what then?' 'what indeed?' quid ita, 'why so?' quid quod, 'what of the fact that?' quid sī, 'whitif?':

Quid vēnīstī, why have you come? Plant. Quid enim? metusne conturbet, what tren? would fear disturb us? Cie. Quid quod delectantur, what of the fact that they are delighted? Cic.

3. Two Interrogatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Quis quem fraudavit, who defrauded, and whom did he defraud (lit., who defrauded whom)? Cic.

4. Tantus sometimes accompanies the interrogative pronoun:

Quae fuit unquam in üllö homine tanta constantia, was there ever so great constancy in any man? Cic.

# 455. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.3—Aliquis, quis, qui, and quispiam, are all indefinite—some one, any one:

Est aliquis, there is some one. Liv. Sensus aliquis esse potest, there may be some sensation. Cic. Dixit quis, some one said. Cic. Si quis rex, if any king. Cic. Alia res quaepiam, any other thing. Cic.

1. Quis and  $qu\bar{\imath}$  are used chiefly after  $s\bar{\imath}$ , nisi,  $n\bar{e}$ , and num. Aliquis and quis are generally used substantively,  $aliqu\bar{\imath}$  and  $qu\bar{\imath}$  adjectively. Aliquis and aliqui after  $s\bar{\imath}$ , nisi, etc., are emphatic:

Si est aliqui sensus in morte, if there is any sensation whatever in death. Cic.

2. Nesciō quis and nesciō quī often supply the place of indefinite pronouns:

- <sup>1</sup> Here quod refers to something that precedes, and means in reference to which, in reference to this, in this connection, etc. For other examples, see Caesar, B. G., I., 14, and VII., 88.
- <sup>2</sup> In some instances quid is readily explained by the ellipsis of some form of  $die\tilde{b}$  or of sum.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> For a full illustration of the use of indefinite pronouns, see Draeger, I., pp. 87-103.

Nesció quis loquitur, some one speaks (lit., I know not who speaks, or one speaks, I know not who). Plaut. Nesció quid mihi animus praesagit mali, my mind forebodes some evil (191, note). Ter.

456. Quidam, 'a certain one,' is less indefinite than aliquis:

Quidam rhètor antiquus, a certain ancient rhetorician. Cic. Accurrit quidam, a certain one runs up. Hor.

- 1. Quidam with an adjective is sometimes used to qualify or soften the statement: Jüstitia mirifica quaedam vidētur, justice seems somewhat wonderful, Cic.
- 2. Quidam with quasi, and sometimes without it, has the force of a certain, a kind of as it were:

Quasi alumna quaedam, a certain foster-child, as it were. Cic.

457. Quisquam and ūllus are used chiefly in negative and conditional sentences, and in interrogative sentences implying a negative:

Neque me quisquam agnovit, nor did any one recognize me. Cie. Si quisquam, if any one. Cie. Num censes allum animal esse, do you think there is any animal? Cie.

1.  $N\dot{\epsilon}m\dot{\delta}$  is the negative of quisquam, and like quisquam is generally used substantively, rarely adjectively:

Nêminem laesit, he harmed no one. Cic. Nêmo poeta, no poet. Cic.

2.  $N\bar{u}llus$  is the negative of  $\bar{u}llus$ , and is generally used adjectively, but it sometimes supplies the Genitive and Ablative of  $n\bar{e}m\bar{o}$ , which generally wants those cases:

Nallum animal, no animal, Cic. Nullius aures, the ears of no one, Cic.

3. Nüllus and nihil are sometimes used for an emphatic non:

Nüllus vēnit, he did not come. Cic. Mortui nülli sunt, the dead are not. Cic.

458. Quīvīs, quīlibet, 'any one whatever,' and quisque, 'every one,' 'each one,' are general indefinites (190):

Quaelibet res, anything. Cic. Tuorum quisque necessariorum, each one of your friends. Cic.

1. Quisque with superlatives and ordinals is generally best rendered by all, or by ever, always; with primus by very, possible:

Epicurcos doctissimus quisque contemnit, all the most learned despise the Epicureans, or the most learned ever despise, etc. Cic. Frimo quoque dic, the earliest day possible, the very first. Cic.

Ut quisque—ita with the superlative in both clauses is often best rendered, the more—the more:

Ut quisque sibi plărimum confidit, ita măxime excellit, the more one confides in one's self, the more one excels. Cic.

459. Alius means 'another, other'; alter, 'the one,' 'the other' (of two), 'the second,' 'a second.' They are often repeated: alius—alius, one—another; alii—alii, some—others; alter—alter, the one—the other; alteri—alteri, the one party—the other:

Legatos alium ab alio aggreditur, he tumpers with the ambassadors one after another. Sall. Alii gloriae serviunt, alii pecuniae, some are slaves to glory, others to money. Cic. Quidquid negat alter, et alter, whatever one denies, the other denies. Hor. Alter erit Tiphys, there will be a second Tiphys. Verg. Tū nune eris alter ab illō, you will now be next after him. Verg. Alterī dīmicant, alterī timent, one party contends, the other fears. Cic.

1. Alius or alter repeated in different cases, or combined with aliūs or aliter, often involves an ellipsis:

Alius aliā viā cīvitātem auxērunt, they advanced the state, one in one way, another in another. Liv. Aliter aliī vīvunt, some live in one way, others in another. Cic.

2. After alius, aliter, and the like, atque, āc, and et often mean than:

Non alius essem atque sum, I would not be ofter than I am, Cie.

3. When alter-alter refer to objects previously mentioned, the first alter usually refers to the latter object, but may refer to either:

Inimicus, competitor, cum altero-cum altero, an enemy, a rival, with the latter-with the former. Cic.

4. Uterque means both, each of two. In the plural it generally means both, each of two parties, but sometimes both, each of two persons or things; regularly so with nouns which are plural in form but singular in sense:

Utrique victoriam crudelliter exercebant, both parties made a cruel use of victory. Sall. Palmas utrasque tetendit, he extended both his hands. Verg.

## CHAPTER V.

## SYNTAX OF VERBS.

#### SECTION I.

#### AGREEMENT OF VERBS .- USE OF VOICES.

## RULE XXXVI.-Agreement of Verb with Subject.

460. A finite verb agrees with its subject in NUMBER and PERSON:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Ego rēgēs ējēcī, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

1. Participles in Compound Tenses agree with the subject according to 438. See also 301, 1 and 2:

Thěbānī accūsātī sunt, the Thebans were accused. Cic.

Note 1.—In the compound forms of the Infinitive, the participle in um sometimes occurs without any reference to the gender or number of the subject:

Diffidentia futurum quae imperavisset, from doubt that those things which he had commanded would take place. Sall.

Note 2.- A General or Indefinite subject is often denoted-

1) By the First or Third Person Plural, and in the Subjunctive by the Second Person

Singular: dicimus, 'we (people) say'; dicunt, 'they say'; dicas, 'you (any one) may say'.

Si heati esse volumus, if we wish to be happy. Cic. Agere quod agas considerato decet, you (one) should do considerately whatever you do (one does). Cic.

2) By an Impersonal Passive:

Ad fanum concurritur, they rush to the temple. Cie. Nisi cum virtute vivatur, unless they live (unless one lives) virtuously. Cie.

Note 3.-For the Pronominal Subject contained in the verb, see 368, 2.

NOTE 4.—For the Omission of the Verb, see 368, 3.

- 461. Synesis.—Sometimes the predicate is construed according to the *real meaning* of the subject without regard to grammatical gender or number. Thus—
  - 1. With collective nouns, pars, multitūdo, and the like:

Multitudo abeunt, the multitude depart. Liv. Pars per agros dilapsi, a part (some) dispersed through the fields. Liv.

Note 1.—Here  $multit\bar{u}d\bar{b}$  and pars, though singular and feminine in form, are plural and masculine in sense; see also 438, 6. Conversely, the Imperative singular may be used in addressing a multitude individually:

Adde defectionem Siciliae, add (to this, soldiers) the revolt of Sicily. Liv.

Note 2.—Of two verbs with the same collective noun, the former is often singular, and the latter plural:

Juventus ruit certantque, the youth rush forth and contend. Verg.

2. With mīlia, often masculine in sense:

Caesī sunt tria mīlia, three thousand men were slain. Liv.

3. With quisque, utcrque, alius-alium, alter-alterum, and the like:

Uterque édûcunt, they each lead out. Caes. Alter alterum vidémus, we see each other. Cic.

4. With singular subjects accompanied by an Ablative with cum:

Dux cum principibus capiuntur, the leader with his chiefs is taken. Liv. Quid hue tantum hominum (= tot homines) incedunt, why are so many men coming hither? Plaut. See also 438, 6.

5. With partim-partim in the sense of pars-pars:

Bonorum partim necessária, partim non necessária sunt, of good things some are necessary, others are not necessary. Cic.

462. Sometimes the verb agrees, not with its subject, but with an Appositive or with a Predicate Noun:

Volsinii, oppidum Tuscorum, concrematum est, Volsinii, a town of the Tuscans, was burned. Plin. Non omnis error stultitia est dicenda, not every error should be called folly. Cic. Pueri Trojanum dicitur aguien, the boys are called the Trojan band. Verg.

Note 1.—The verb regularly agrees with the appositive when that is urbs, oppidum, or ciribis, in apposition with plural names of places, as in the first example.

NOTE 2.—The verb agrees with the predicate noun when that is nearer or more emphatic than the subject, as in the second example.

Note 3.—The verb sometimes agrees with a noun in a subordinate clause after quam, nisi, etc.:

Nihil aliud nisi pāx quaesīta est, nothing but peace was sought. Cic.

- 463. With two or more subjects the verb agrees—
- I. With one subject, and is understood with the others:

Aut mores spectari aut fortuna solet, either character or fortune is wont to be regarded. Cic. Homerus fuit et Hesiodus ante Romam conditam, Homer and Hesiod lived (were) before the founding of Rome. Cic.

II. With all the subjects conjointly, and is accordingly in the plural number:

Lentulus, Scīpiŏ pericrunt, Lentulus and Scipio perished. Cic. Ego et Cicerŏ valēmus, Cicero and 1 are well. Cic. Tū et Tullia valētis, you and Tullia are well. Cic.

- 1. With subjects differing in person, the verb takes the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; see examples.
  - 2. For Participles in Compound Tenses, see 439.
- 3. Two Subjects as a Unit.—Two singular subjects forming in sense a unit or whole, admit a singular verb:

Senitus populusque intellegit, the senate and people (i. e., the state as a unit) understand. Cic. Tempus necessitisque postulat, time and necessity (i. e., the crisis) demand. Cic.

4. With Aut on Nec.—When the subjects connected by aut, vel, nec, neque or sen, differ in person, the verb is usually in the plural; but when they are of the sume person, the verb usually agrees with the nearest subject:

Hacc neque ego neque tû fecimus, neither you nor I have done these things. Ter. Aut Brûtus aut Cassius jûdicavit, either Brutus or Cassius judged. Cic.

- 464. Voices.—With transitive verbs, a thought may at the pleasure of the writer be expressed either actively or passively. But—
- That which in the active construction would be the object must be the subject in the passive; and—
- II. That which in the active would be the subject must be put in the Ablative with \(\tilde{a}\) or ab for persons, and in the Ablative alone for things (415, I.; 420):

Deus omnia constituit, God ordained all things. Ā Deō omnia constituta sunt, all things were ordained by God. Cic. Deī providentia mundum administrat, the providence of God rules the world. Deī providentia mundus administratur, the world is ruled by the providence of God. Cic.

465. The Passive Voice, like the Greek Middle, is sometimes equivalent to the Active with a reflexive pronoun:

Lavantur in fluminibus, they bathe (wash themselves) in the rivers. Caes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Most Passive forms once had both a Middle and a Passive meaning, as in Greek: but in Latin the Middle or Reflexive meaning has nearly disappeared, though retained to a certain extent in special verbs.

Non life victoria vertitur, not upon this point (here) does victory turn (turn itself). Verg.

1. Intransitive Verbs (193) have regularly only the active voice, but they are sometimes used impersonally in the passive:

Curritur ad practorium, they run to the practorium (it is run to). Cic. Mihi cum iis vivendum est, I must live with them. Cic.

Note.—Verbs which are usually intransitive are occasionally used transitively, especially in poetry:

Ego eur invideor, why am I envied? Hor.

2. Deponent Veres, though passive in form, are in signification transitive or intransitive:

Illud mīrābar, I admired that. Cic. Ab urbe proficiscī, to set out from the city. Caes.

Note 1.—Originally many deponent verbs seem to have had the force of the Greek Middle voice; glörior, 'I boast myself,' 'I boast'; rescor, 'I feed myself.'

NOTE 2.—Semi-Deponents have some of the active forms and some of the passive, without change of meaning; see 268, 3.

#### SECTION II.

#### THE INDICATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

#### I. Present Indicative.

**466.** The Present Indicative represents the action of the verb as taking place at the present time:

Ego et Ciceró valèmus, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Hoe te rogo, I ask you for this. Cic.

Note.—The Present of the Active Periphrastic Conjugation denotes an intended of future action; that of the Fassive, a present necessity or duty:

Bellum scripturus sum, I intend to write the history of the war. Sall. Legendus est hie örütor, this orator ought to be read. Cic.

## 467. Hence the Present Tense is used-

I. Of actions and events which are actually taking place at the present time, as in the above examples.

II. Of actions and events which, as belonging to all time, belong of course to the present, as general iruths and customs:

Nihil est amábilius virtûte, nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Fortes fortûna adjuvat, fortune helps the brave. Ter.

III. Of past actions and events which the writer wishes, for effect, to picture before the reader as present. The Present, when so used, is called the Historical Present:

Scripturus sum may be variously rendered, I intend to write, am about to write, am to write, am destined to write, etc.; legendus est means he ought to be read, deserves to be read, must be read, etc.

Jugurtha vallo moenia circumdat, Jugurtha surrounded the city with a rampart. Sall.

 The HISTORICAL PRESENT is used much more freely in Latin than in English. It is therefore generally best rendered by a past tense.

2. The Present is often used of a present action which has been going on for some time, especially after jundin, jamdudum, etc.:

Jamdiū ignoro quid agās, I have not known for a long time what you have been doing. Cic.

3. The Present in Latin, as in English, may be used of authors whose works are extant:

Xenophon facit Socratem disputantem, Xenophon represents Socrates discussing, Cic.

4. With dum, 'while,' the Present is generally used, whether the action is present, past, or future:

Dum ea parant, Saguntum oppūgnābātur, while they were (are) making these preparations, Saguntum was attacked. Liv. Dum haec geruntur, Caesari nūntiātum est, while these things were taking place, it was announced to Caesar. Caes.

Note.—But with dum, meaning as long as, the Present can be used only of present time.

5. The Present is sometimes used of an action really future, especially in animated discourse and in conditions:

Quam prendimus arcem, what stronghold do we seize, or are we to seize? Verg. Si vincimus, omnia tuta erunt, if we conquer, all things will be safe. Sall.

6. The Present is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action:

Virtûtem accendit, he tries to kindle their valor. Verg. Quid me terres, why do you try to terrify me? Verg.

### II. IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

468. The Imperfect Indicative represents the action as taking place in past time:

Stäbant nöbilissimi juvenes, there stood (were standing) most noble youths. Liv. Colles oppidum eingebant, hills encompassed the town. Caes. Mötürus exercitum erat, he was intending to more his army. Liv.

Note.—For the Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugations in conditional sentences, see  ${\bf 511.}\ 2$ 

## 469. Hence the Imperfect is used especially-

I. In lively description, whether of scenes or events:

Ante oppidum plānities patēbat, before the town extended a plain. Caes. Fulgentes gladies vidēbant, they saw (were seeing) the gleaming swords. Cic.

II. Of customary or repeated actions and events, often rendered was wont, etc.:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Here the time denoted by parant is present relatively to oppūgnābātur, and therefore really past.

Pausanias epulabatur more Persarum, Pausanias was wont to banquet in the Persan style. Nep.

1. The Imperiect is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action: \( \) Sedabant tumult\( \) s, they attempted to quell the seditions. Liv.

 The Imperfect is often used of a past action which had been going on for some time, especially with jamdiū, jamdūdum, etc.:

Domicilium Romae multos jam annos habebat, he had already for many years had his residence at Rome. Cie.

3. The Latin sometimes uses the Imperfect where the English requires the Present: 2

Pastum animantibus natūra eum qui cuique aptus erat, comparavit, nature has prepared for animals that food which is adapted to each. Cie.

Note 1 .- For the Imperfect in Letters, see 472, 1.

Note 2 .- For the Descriptive Imperfect in Narration, see 471, 6.

Note 3.—For the *Historicat Tenses* in expressions of Duty, Peopriety, Necessity, etc., see 476, 4.

#### III. FUTURE INDICATIVE.

470. The Future Indicative represents the action as one which will take place in future time:

Scribam ad te, I shall write to you. Cic. Nunquam aberrabimus, we shall never go astray. Cic.

1. In Latin, as in English, the Future Indicative sometimes has the force of an Imperative:

Curabis et seribés, you will take care and write. Cie.

2. Actions which really belong to future time are almost invariably expressed by the Future tense, though sometimes put in the Present in English:

Nătūram si sequēmur, nunquam aberrābimus, if we follow nature, we shall never go astray. Cie.

## IV. PERFECT INDICATIVE.

## 471. The Perfect Indicative has two distinct uses:

I. As the Present Perfect of Perfect Definite, it represents the action as at present completed, and is rendered by our Perfect with have:

De genere belli dixi, I have spoken of the character of the war. Cie.

II. As the Historical Perfect of Perfect Indefinite, it represents the action simply as an historical fact:

Observe that the peculiarities of the Present reappear in the Imperfect. This arises from the fact that these two tenses are precisely alike in representing the action in its progress, and that they differ only in time. The one views the action in the present, the other transfers it to the past.

<sup>\*</sup> This occurs occasionally in the statement of general truths and in the description of natural scenes, but in such cases the truth or the scene is viewed not from the present but from the past.

Miltiades est accūsātus, Miltiades was accused. Nep. Quid factūrī fuistis, what did you intend to do, or what would you have done? Cic.

NOTE.—For the Perfect of the Periphrastic Conjugations in conditional sentences, see 476. 1.

1. The Perfect is sometimes used-

1) Instead of the Present to denote the suddenness of the action:

Terra tremit, mortilia corda stravit pavor, the earth trembles, fear overwhelms (has overwhelmed) the hearts of mortals. Verg.

2) To contrast the past with the present, implying that what was true then is not true now:

Habuit, non habet, he had, but has not. Cic. Fuit Ilium, Ilium was. Verg.

2. The Perfect Indicative with paene, prope, may often be rendered by might, would, or by the Pluperfect Indicative:

Brûtum non minus amo, paene dixī, quam tē, I love Brutus not less, I might almost say, or I had almost said, than I love you. Cic.

3. The Latin sometimes employs the Perfect and Pluperfect where the English uses the Present and Imperfect, especially in repeated actions, and in verbs which want the Present (297):

Meminit praeteritõrum, he remembers 1 the past. Cic. Cum ad vīllam võnī, hõe mē dēlectat, when I come (have come) to a villa, this pleases me. Cic. Memineram Paullum, I remembered Paullus. Cic.

4. Conjunctions meaning as soon as 2 are usually followed by the Perfect; sometimes by the Imperfect or Historical Present. But the Pluperfect is sometimes used, especially to denote the result of a completed action:

Postquam cecidit Ilium, after (as soon as) Rium fell, or had fallen. Verg. His ubi nātum prosequitur dictis, when he had addressed his son with these words. Verg. Posteāquam consul fuerat, after he had been consul. Cic. Anno tertio postquam profugerat, in the third year after he had fled. Nep.

5. In Subordinate Clauses after cum (quum), sī, etc., the Perfect is sometimes used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs; 5

Cum ad villam vēni, hỗc mẽ delectat, whenever I come (have come) to a villa, this delights me. Cic.

Note.—In such cases the principal clause generally retains the Present, as in the example just given, but in *poetry* and in *late prose* it sometimes admits the Perfect:

Tulit punctum qui miscuit ûtile dulci, he wins (has won) favor who combines (has combined) the useful with the agreeable. Hor.

6. In Animated Narrative, the Perfect usually narrates the leading events, and the Imperfect describes the attendant circumstances:

Cultum mūtāvit, vēste Mēdicā ūtēbātur, epulābātur more Persārum, he changed his mode of life, used the Median dress, feasted in the Persian style.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Literally, has recalled, and so remembers, as the result of the act. The Latin presents the completed act, the English the result.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> As postquam, ubi, ubi primum, ut, ut primum, simul atque (āc), etc.

<sup>3</sup> Historical present; lit., when he attends.

<sup>4</sup> And so was then a man of consular rank.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> This use of the Latin Perfect corresponds to the Gnomic Aorist in Greek.

Nep. Se in oppida reciperant marisque se tenebant, they betook themselves into their towns and kept themselves within their walls. Liv.

Note 1.—The Compound Tenses in the Passive often denote the result of the action. Thus, doctus est may mean either he has been instructed, or he is a learned man (lit., an instructed man):

Fuit doctus ex disciplină Stoieorum, he was instructed in (lit., out of) the learning of the Stoics. Cic. Navis parata fuit, the vessel was ready (lit., was prepared). Liv.

Note 2.-For the Perfect in Letters, see 472, 1.

NOTE 3.—For the Historical Tenses in expressions of DUTY, PROPRIETY, NECESSITY, etc., see 476. 4.

#### V. PLUPERFECT INDICATIVE.

**472.** The Pluperfect Indicative represents the action as completed at some past time:

Pyrrhī temporibus jam Apollō versūs facere desierat, in the times of Pyrrhus Apollo had already ceusal to make verses.\(^1\) Cie. Copiās quās pro castris collocāverat, red īxit, he led back the forces which he had stationed before the cump. Caes. Cum esset Demosthenes, multi orātores clārī fuerunt et anteā fuerant, when Demosthenes lived there were many illustrious orators, and there had been before. Cie.

1. In Letters, the writer often adapts the tense to the time of the reader, using the Imperfect or Perfect of present actions and events, and the Pluperfect of those which are past: 2

Nihil habēbam quod seriberem; ad tuās omnēs epistulās reserīpseram prīdiē, I have (had) nothing to write; I replied to all your letters yesterday. Cic. Prīdiē Īdās haec serīpsī; cō diē apud Pompōnium eram cēnātūrus, I write this on the day before the Ides; I am going to dine to-day with Pomponius. Cic.

2. The Pluperfect after cum,  $s\bar{i}$ , etc., is often used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs:  $^5$ 

Si hostes deterrere nequiverant circumveniebant, if they were (had been) unable to deter the enemy, they surrounded them. Sall.

Note 1 .- For the Pluperfect in the sense of the English Imperfect, see 471, 3.

NOTE 2.—For the Historical Tenses in expressions of Duty, Property, Necessity, etc., see 476, 4.

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  Observe that dister at represents the action as already completed at the time designate  $\mathbf{i}$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This change is by no means uniformly made, but is subject to the pleasure of the writer. It is most common near the beginning and the end of letters.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Observe that the adverbs and the adverbial expressions are also adapted to the time of the reader.  $Her\bar{\imath}$ , 'yesterday,' becomes to the reader  $pr\bar{\imath}di\bar{\imath}$ , 'the day before '—i. e., the day before the writing of the letter. In the same way  $hodi\bar{\imath}$ , 'to-day,' 'this day,' becomes to the reader  $e\bar{\imath}di\bar{\imath}$ , 'that day,'

<sup>4</sup> The Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugation is sometimes thus used of future events which are expected to happen before the receipt of the letter. Events which will be future to the reader as well as to the writer must be expressed by the Future.

<sup>5</sup> See the similar use of the Perfect, 471. 5.

<sup>5</sup> That is, whenever they were unable.

#### VI. FUTURE PERFECT INDICATIVE.

473. The Future Perfect Indicative represents the action as one which will be completed at some future time:

Rōmam cum vēncrō, scrībam ad tē, when I shall have reached Rome, I will write to you. Cic. Dum tū hace legēs, ego illum fortasse convēncrō, wh n you read this, I shall perhaps have already met him. Cic.

1. The Future Perfect is sometimes used to denote the *complete* accomplishment of the work:

Ego meum officium praestitero, I shall discharge my duty. Caes.

2. The Future Perfect is sometimes found in conditional clauses where we use the Present:

Si interpretări potucro, his verbis ütitur, if I can (shall have been able to) understand him, he uses these words. Cic.

#### VII. USE OF THE INDICATIVE.

#### RULE XXXVII .- Indicative.

## 474. The Indicative is used in treating of facts:

Deus mundum aedificăvit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Nonne expulsus est patriă, was he not banished from his country? Cic. Hoe feci dum licuit, I did this as long as it was permitted. Cic.

475. The Indicative is thus used in treating of facts-

I. In *Principal Clauses*, whether Declarative as in the first example or Interrogative as in the second.

II. In Subordinate Clauses. Thus-

1. In Relative Clauses:

Dixit id quod dīgnissimum rē pūblicā fuit, he stated that which was most worthy of the republic. Cic. Quicquam bonum est, quod non eum quī id possidet meliorem facit, is anything good which does not make him better who possesses it? Cic.

Note .- For the Subjunctive in Relative Clauses, see 497; 500; 503; 507, 2, etc.

2. In Conditional Clauses:

Sī haec cīvitās est, cīvis sum ego, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic.

Note 1.—For the special uses of the *Indicative* in Conditional Sentences, see 598. Note 2.—For the Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences, see 509; 510.

3. In Concessive Clauses:

Quamquam intellegunt, tamen nünquam dicunt, although they understand, they never speak. Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Concessive Clauses, see 515.

<sup>1</sup> Including, of course, all simple sentences.

#### 4. In Causal Clauses:

Quoniam supplicătió deercta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed. Cic. Quia honore digni habentur, because they are deemed worthy of honor. Curt.

Note. - For the Subjunctive in Causal Clauses, see 516; 517.

## 5. In Temporal Clauses:

Cum quieseunt, probant, while they are silent they approve. Cic. Priusquam lücet, adsunt, they are present before it is light. Cic.

Note.-For the Subjunctive in Temporal Clauses, see 519; 520; 521.

- 476. Special Uses.—The Indicative is sometimes used where our idiom would suggest the Subjunctive:
- 1. The *Indicative* of the *Periphrastic Conjugations* is often so used in the historical tenses, especially in conditional sentences (511, 2):

Hace condició non accipienda fuit, this condition should not have been accepted. Cie.

2. The *Historical Tenses* of the *Indicative*, particularly the *Pluperfect*, are sometimes used for *effect*, to represent as an actual fact something which is shown by the context never to have become fully so:

Vicerāmus, nisi rectpisset Antonium, we should have (lit., had) conquered, had he not received Antony. Cic. See 511, 1.

3. Pronouns and Relative Adverbs, made general by being doubled or by assuming the suffix cumque (187, 3), take the Indicative:

Quisquis est, is est sapiëns, whoever he is, he is wise. Cic. Hoe ültimum, utuunque initum est, proclium fuit, this, however it was commenced, was the last battle. Liv. Quidquid oritur, qualecumque est, causam habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever character it may be (lit., is), it has a cause. Cic.

4. In expressions of *Duty, Propriety, Necessity, Ability,* and the like, the Latin often uses the Indicative, chiefly in the historical tenses, in a manner somewhat at variance with the English idiom:

Non suscipi bellum oportuit, the war should not have been undertaken. Liv. Eum contunctiis onerasti, quem colere dibebas, you have loaded with insults one whom you should have (ought to have) receved. Cic. Multos possum bonos viros nominare, I might name (lit., I am able to name) many good men. Cic. Hane mecum poteras requiescere noetem, you might rest (might have rested) with me this night. Verg.

5. The Indicative of the verb sum is often used with longum, acquium, acquius, difficile, jūstum, melius, pār, ūtilius, etc., in such expressions as longum est, 'it would be tedious,' melius crat, 'it would have been better':

Longum est persequi útilitates, it would be tedious (is a long task) to recount the uses. Cie. Melius fuerat, promissum non esse servatum, it would have been better that the promise should not have been kept. Cie.

<sup>1</sup> Literally, it was fitting or proper that the war should not be undertaken.

#### SECTION III.

## GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND ITS TENSES.

- 477. The Latin Subjunctive ' has two principal uses-
- I. It may represent an action as WILLED or DESIRED:

  Amēmus patriam, LET US LOVE our country. Cic.
- Themas patriam, LEI CS Love our country. Oic.
- II. It may represent an action as PROBABLE or POSSIBLE: Quaerat quispiam, some one MAY INQUIRE. Cic.
- 478. Tenses in the Subjunctive do not designate the time of the action so definitely as in the Indicative.
- 479. The Present Subjunctive in principal clauses  $^2$  embraces in a vague and general manner both *present* and *future* time:  $^2$

Amimus patriam, let us love our country (now and ever). Cic. Quaerat quispiam, some one may (or will) inquire (at any time). Cic.

480. The Imperfect Subjunctive in principal clauses relates sometimes to the *past* and sometimes to the *present*:

Crèderès victos, vanquished you would have thought them. Liv. Utinam possem, would that I were able (now). Cic.

481. The Perfect Subjunctive in principal clauses relates sometimes to the *past*, but more frequently to the *present* or *future*:

The Latin Subjunctive, it will be remembered (p. 117, foot-note 4), contains the forms and the meaning of two kindred moods, the Subjunctive proper, and the Optative. In Latin, the forms characteristic of these two moods, used without any difference of meaning, are made to supplement each other. Thus, in the Present, the Optative forms are found in the First Conjugation, and the Subjunctive forms in the Second, Third, and Fourth. In their origin they are only special developments of certain forms of the Present Indicative, denoting continued and attempted action. From this idea of attempted action was readily developed on the one hand desire, will, as we attempt only what we desire, and on the other hand probability, possibility, as we shall very likely accomplish what we are already attempting. These two meanings, united in one word, lie at the basis of all Subjunctive constructions in Latin. On the origin, history, and use of the Subjunctive, see Delbrück, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ'; Curtius, 'Verbum,' II., pp. 55-95; Draeger, II., pp. 439-743; Roby, II., pp. 202-348; also a paper by the author on 'The Development of the Latin Subjunctive in Principal Clauses,' Transactions Am. Phil. Assoc., 1579.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> For the tenses of the Subjunctive in Subordinate clauses, see 490.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The Present Subjunctive in its origin is closely related both in form and in meaning to the Faturé Indicative. Thus, in the Third and Fourth Conjugations, no future forms for the Indicative have been developed, but Subjunctive and Optative forms supply their place, as regam, audiam (Subjunctive), and reges, reget, etc., and audies, audiet, etc. (Optaive).

Fuerit malus eivis, he may have been (admit that he was) a bad citizen. Cie. Ne transieris i Iberum, do not cross the Ebro (now or at any time). Liv.

482. The Pluperfect Subjunctive in principal clauses relates to the past:

Utinam potnissem, would that I had been able. Cic.

#### SECTION IV.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE IN PRINCIPAL CLAUSES.

### RULE XXXVIII.-Subjunctive of Desire, Command.

483. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS DESIRED:

Valeant cīvēs, may the citizens be well. Cic. Amēmus patriam, let us love our country. Cic. Ā nōbīs dīligātur, let him be loved by us. Cic. Scrībere nē pigrēre, do not neglect to write. Cic.

1. The Subjunctive of Desire is often accompanied by utinam, and sometimes, especially in the poets, by ut,  $s\bar{t}$ ,  $\bar{o}$   $s\bar{t}$ :

Utinam eonata efficere possim, may I be able to accomplish my endeavors. Cic. Ut illum di perdant, would that the gods would destroy him. Ter.

2. Force of Tenses.—The Present and Perfect imply that the wish may be fulfilled; the Imperfect and Pluperfect, that it can not be fulfilled:

Sint beatl, may they be happy. Cic. No transier's Iborum, do not cross the Ebro. Liv. Utinam possem, utinam potuissem, would that I were able, would that I had been able. Cic.

Note.—The Imperfect and Pluperfect may often be best rendered  $should, should \ have, ought to have:$ 

Hoc dicerct, he should have said this. Cic. Mortem oppetiisses, you should have met death. Cic.

3. Negatives.—With the Subjunctive of Desire, the negative is ne, rarely non; with a connective, neve, new, rarely neque:

Ne audeant, let them not dare. Cic. Non recedamus, let us not recede. Cic. Ames diei pater, neu sinas, etc., may you love to be called father, and may you not permit, etc. Hor. Neve minor neu sit productior, let it be neither shorter nor longer. Hor.

Note, - Nodum, 'not to say,' 'much less,' is used with the Subjunctive :

Vix in tectis frigus vitatur, nedum in mari sit facile abesse ab injuria, the cold is avoided with difficulty in our houses, much less is it easy to escape (to be absent from) injury on the sea. Cic.

4. The first person of the Subjunctive is often found in earnest or solemn Affirmations:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Observe that the *Perfect* thus used does not at all differ in time from the *Present*, but that it calls attention to the *completion* of the action.

Moriar, sī putŏ, may I die, if I think. Cic. Nē sim salvus, sī serībŏ, may I not be safe, if I write. Cic. Sollicitat, ita vīvam, as I live, it troubles me. Cic.

5. The Subjunctive of Desire is sometimes used in Relative Clauses:

Quod faustum sit, regem create, elect a king, and may it be an auspicious event (may which be auspicious). Liv. Senectūs, ad quam utinam perveniātis, old age, to which may you attain. Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive of Desire in Subordinate Clauses, see 486, III., note, with foot-note.

6. Modo, modo nē, may accompany the Subjunctive of Desire:

Modo Jüppiter adsit, only let Jupiter be present. Verg. Modo në laudent, only let them not praise. Cic.

## 484. The Subjunctive of Desire may be in meaning-

I. OPTATIVE, as in prayers and wishes:

Sint beati, may they be happy. Cic. Di bene vertant, may the gods cause it to turn out well. Plant.

II. HORTATIVE, as in exhortations and entreaties:

Consulamus bonis, let us consult for the good. Cie.

III. Concessive, as in admissions and concessions:

Fuerint pertinaces, grant (or admit) that they were obstinate. Cic.

IV. IMPERATIVE, as in mild commands, admonitions, warnings, etc., used chiefly in prohibitions:

Illum jocum në sis aspernatus, do not despise that jest. Cic. Scribere në pigrëre, do not neglect to write. Cic.

Note 1 .-- In prohibitions, the Perfect tense is generally used:

Në transieris Ibërum, do not cross the Ebro. Liv.

Note 2.—Except in prohibitions, the Second Person Singular in the best prose is used almost exclusively of an indefinite you, meaning one, any one:

Isto bono ūtāre, you should use (i. e., one should use) that advantage. Cic.

V. Deliberative, as in deliberative questions, to ask what should be:

Huic cēdāmus, hūjus condiciones audiāmus, shall we yield to him, shall we listen to his terms? Cic. Quid facerem, what was I to do? Verg.

## RULE XXXIX.-Potential Subjunctive.

485. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS POSSIBLE:

Hie quaerat quispiam, here some one may inquire. Cic. Ita laudem inveniās, thus you will (or may) obtain praise. Ter. Ita amīcos parēs, thus you will make friends. Ter. Vix dicere ausim, I should searcely dare to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Here ita rīvam means, may I so live (i. e., may I live only in ease this is true).

<sup>2</sup> Or, ought we to yield, is it your wish that we should yield?

<sup>8</sup> Or, what should I have done?

say. Liv. Crēderēs vīctōs, vanquished you would have thought them. Liv. Forsitan quaerātis, perhaps you may inquire. Cic. Hōe nēmō dixeit, no one would say this. Cic. Quis dubitet (= nēmō dubitat), who would doubt (or who doubts = no one doubts)? Cic. Hōc quis ferre possit, who would be able to endure this? Cic.

Note 1.—In the Potential Subjunctive, the Perfect often has nearly the same force as the Present, and the Imperfect is often used where we should expect the Pluperfect; dicerés, 'you would have said'; crederés, putûrés, 'you would have thought': riderés, cernerés, 'you would have seen':

To Platonem laudaver's, you would praise Plato. Cie. Maesti, crèder's victos, redeunt in castra, sad, vanquished you would have thought them, they returned to the camp. Liv.

Note 2 .- On Tenses, see also 478-482.

Note 3.—The Second Person Singular, especially of the Imperfect, is often used of an indefinite you, meaning one, any one: crederes, 'you would have thought,' 'any one would have thought.'

486. In the Potential sense, the Subjunctive is used-

I. In Declarative Sentences, to express an affirmation modestly, doubtfully, or conditionally; see examples.

Note 1.—Thus, in the language of politeness and modesty, the Potential Subjunctive is often used in verbs of *wishing* and *thinking*: *relim*, '1 should wish,' for *volō*, '1 wish'; *nōlim*, '1 should be unwilling'; *mōlim*, '1 should prefer':

Ego conseam, I should think, or I am inclined to think. Liv. Mihi dari velim, I should like to have it given to me. Cic.

Note 2.—The Potential Subjunctive is used in the conclusion of conditional sentences; see 507, 1, with foot-note.

II. In Interrogative Sentences, to ask not what is, but what is likely to be, what may be or would be, generally implying a negative answer, as in the last two examples under the rule.

Note.—The Subjunctive with ut, with or without the interrogative ne, occurs in questions expressive of impatience or surprise: 2

Të ut ülla rës frangat, how should anything subdue you? Cic. Egone ut mentiar, that I should speak falsely? Plaut.

III. In Subordinate Clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as possible rather than real:

Quamquam epulis careat senectüs, though old age may be without its feasts. Cie. Quoniam non possent, since they would not be able. Caes. Ubi res posceret, whenever the case might demand. Liv.

Note.—From the Subjunctive of Desire and the Potential Subjunctive in principal clauses have been developed the various uses of the Subjunctive in subordinate clauses.<sup>3</sup>

After forsitan = fors sit an. 'the chance may be whether,' 'perhaps,' the Subjunctive was originally in an indirect question (529), but it may be best treated as Potential. So also with forsan and fortusse.

<sup>2</sup> Some grammarians assume an ellipsis of a predicate, as cridibite est, fieri potest, etc.

Thus, the Subjunctive of Desire is used in final, conditional, and concessive clauses; the Potential Subjunctive in clauses of result, and in various others denoting

#### SECTION V.

#### THE IMPERATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

#### RULE XL.-Imperative.

487. The Imperative is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties:

Jūstitiam cole, practice justice. Cic. Tū nē cēde malīs, do not yield to misfortunes. Verg. Sī quid in tē peceāvī, īgnōsce, if I have sinned against you, pardon mc. Cic.

- 1. The Present Imperative corresponds to the Imperative in English: Justitian cole, practice justice. Cic. Perge, Catilina, go, Catiline. Cic.
- 2. The Future Imperative corresponds to the imperative use of the English Future with shall, or to the Imperative let, and is used—
  - 1) In commands involving future rather than present action:

Rem penditote, you shall consider the subject. Cic. Cras petito, dabitur, ask to-morrow, it shall be granted. Plant.

2) In LAWS, ORDERS, PRECEPTS, etc., especially in Prohibitions:

Consules namini parento, the consuls shall be subject to no one. Cic. Salus populi suprema lex esto, the safety of the people shall be the supreme law. Cic.

Note.—The general distinction between the *Present* Imperative and the *Future* is often disregarded, especially in poctry: <sup>1</sup>

Ubi aciem videris, tum ordinės dissipā, when you shall see the line of battle, then scatter the ranks. Liv. Quoniam supplicatio decreta est, celebratote illos dies, since a thanksgiring has been decreed, celebrate those days. Cie.

3. An Imperative clause may be used instead of a Conditional clause:

Lacesse, jam videbis furentem, provoke him (i. c., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic. Cic.

4. The place of the Imperative may be supplied by the Subjunctive of Desire (483), or by the Future Indicative:

Ne audeant, let them not dare. Cic. Quod optimum videbitur, facies, you will do what shall seem best. Cic.

488. In prohibitions or negative commands, the negative  $n\bar{e}$ , rarely  $n\bar{e}n$ , accompanies the Imperative, and if a connective is required,  $n\bar{e}ve$  or neu is generally used, rarely neque:

Tũ në cède malis, do not yield to misfortunes. Verg. Hominem mortuum in urbe në sepelitë, nëve ŭritë, thou shalt not bury nor burn a dead body in the city. Cic.

what is likely to be. Moreover, from these two leading uses was developed the idea of a conceived or assumed action, which probably lies at the foundation of all the other uses of this mood, as in causal and temporal clauses, in indirect questions, and in the subordinate clauses of the indirect discourse.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Thus the Future is especially common in certain verbs; and, indeed, in some verbs, as sciō, memini, etc., it is the only form in common use.

- 489. Instead of  $n\bar{e}$  with the Present Imperative, the best prose writers generally use—
  - 1) Nölī and nölīte with the Infinitive:

Nollte putare, do not think (be unwilling to think). Cic.

2) Fac në or cave, with the Subjunctive:

Fac no quid ahud cures hoe tempore, do not attend to anything else at this time. Cic. Cave facias, beware of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.

3) No with the Perfect Subjunctive, rarely with the Present; see 484, IV., note 1.

#### SECTION VI.

#### MOODS IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

- I. TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.
- 490. In subordinate clauses the tenses of the Subjunctive con--rm to the following rule:

## RULE XLI.-Sequence of Tenses.

491. Principal tenses depend upon principal tenses; listorical upon historical:

Nītitur ut vincat, he strives to conquer.\(^1\) Cic. Nēmŏ erit quī cēnseat, there will be no one who will think,\(^1\) Cic. Quaesierās nonne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. Ut honore dīgnus essem laborāvī, I strove to be worthy of honor. Cic.

- 492. In accordance with this rule, the Subjunctive dependent upon a principal tense,<sup>2</sup> present, future, future perfect, is put—
  - 1. In the Present, to denote incomplete action:

Quaeritur cūr dissentiant, the question is asked why they disagree. Cic. Nomo erit qui conseat, there will be no one who will think. Cic.

Note.—Observe that in these examples the action denoted by the Subjunctive belongs either to the present time or to the future.

2. In the Perfect, to denote completed action:

Quacramus quae vitia fuerint, let us inquire what faults there were. Cic. Rogitabit me ubl fuerim, he will ask me where I have been. Ter.

Note 1.—In the sequence of tenses, the Perfect is occasionally treated as a principal tense; 2

Oblîtus es quid dixerim, you have forgotten what I said. Cic.

Note 2.—For further illustrations of the sequence of tenses, see 493, 2, note 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Present Subjunctive generally denotes present time in relation to the principal verb. Accordingly, vincat depending upon the present, nititur, denotes present time, while censeat depending upon the future, crit, denotes future time.

<sup>2</sup> For the treatment of the Perfect in the sequence of lenses, see 495.

- 493. The Subjunctive dependent upon an historical tense, imperfect, historical perfect, pluperfect, is put—
  - 1. In the Imperfect, to denote incomplete action:

Timebam ne evenirent ea, I was fearing that those things would take place (i. e., at some future time). Cic. Quaesieris nonne putarem, you had inquired whether I did not think (i. e., at that time). Cic.

Note.—Observe that in these examples the time of the action denoted by the Subjunctive is either the same as that of the principal verb or subsequent to it.

2. In the Pluperfect, to denote completed action:

Themistocles, cum Graeciam liberasset, expulsus est, Themistocles was banished, though he had liberated Greece. Cic.

Note 1.—The Pluperfect after an historical tense, like the Perfect after a principal tense, may represent the action as *completed in future time*; see **496**, II.

Note 2.—The sequence of lenses may be further illustrated as follows: 1

Nescit quid faciās. He knows not what you are doing. Nesciet quid faciās, He will not know what you will do.2 Nescīverit quid faciās, He will not have known what you will do. Nescit auid fēcerīs. He knows not what you have done, or what you did.3 Nesciet quid féceris, He will not know what you will have done.4 Nescīverit anid fēcerīs, He wi'l not have known what you will have done. Nesciebat quid faceres, He did not know what you were doing.5 He did not know what you were doing.5 Nescīvit quid facerēs, Nescīverat quid facerēs, He had not known what you were doing. Nesciebat quid fecisses. He did not know what you had done. Neseïvit anid fēcissēs. He did not know what you had done. Nescīverat quid fēcissēs, He had not known what you had done.

494. The periphrastic forms in rus and dus conform to the general rule for the sequence of tenses:

Incertum est quam longa vita futura sit, it is uncertain how long life will continue. Cic. Incertum erat quo missuri classem forent, it was uncertain whither they would send the fleet. Liv.

- 495. PECULIARITIES IN SEQUENCE.—The following peculiarities in the sequence of tenses deserve notice:
- I. In the sequence of tenses the *Latin Perfect* is generally treated as an historical tense, even when rendered with *have*, and thus admits the *Imperfect* or *Pluperfect*:

Quoniam quae subsidia habērēs exposui, nunc dieam, since I have shown

- <sup>1</sup> It is not intended to give all the possible meanings of the Subjunctive clauses here used, but simply to illustrate the sequence of tenses.
- <sup>2</sup> Or, he will not know what you are doing. Thus, quid faciās may represent the direct question, quid faciās, 'what shall you do?' or quid facis, 'what are you doing?'
  - 3 Or, what you were doing.
  - 4 Or, what you have done, or what you did.
  - <sup>6</sup> Or, what you would do. Nescivit may sometimes be rendered, he has not known.
  - 6 Exposut, though best rendered by our Perfect Definite with have, is in the Latin

what aids you have, I will now speak. Cie. Have non ut vos excitarem locutus sum, I have not spoken this to arouse (that 1 might arouse) you. Cie.

Note. - For the Perfect as a principal tense, see 492, 2, note 1.

II. The *Historical Present* (467, III.) is generally treated as an *historical* tense, but sometimes as a *principal* tense:

Persuadet Castico ut regnum occuparet, he persuaded Casticus to scize the government. Caes. Ubii orant ut sibi parcat, the Ubii implore him to spare them. Caes.

NOTE.—The *Historical Present* includes the Present used of authors (467, 3), the Present with dum (467, 4), the Historical Infinitive (536, 1), etc.:

Chrysippus disputat Aethera esse cum quem homines Jovem appellarent, Chrysippus contends that he whom men cull Jupiter is Aether. Cic.

111. The *Imperfect Subjunctive*, even when it refers to present time, as in conditional sentences, is generally treated as an *historical* tense, though sometimes as a *principal* tense:

Nisi ineptum putărem, jūrărem mē ca sentire quae dicerem, if I did not think it improper, I would take an oath that I believe those things which I say. Cic. Memorăre possem quibus in locis hostis populus Românus fūderit, I might state in what places the Roman people routed the enemy. Sall.

IV. The Perfect Infinitive is generally treated as an historical tense, but the Present and the Future Infinitive, the Present and the Future Participle, as also Gerunds and Supines, share the tense of the verb on which they depend, as they express only relative time (537, 550):

Satis videor docuisse, hominis nătūra quanto anteiret animantes, I think I have sufficiently shown how much the nature of man surpasses that of the other animals (lit., surpassed animals). Cie. Spērō fore i ut contingat, I hope it will happen. Cie. Non spērāverat fore ut ad sē dēficerent, he had not hoped that they would revolt to him. Liv. Mīsērunt Delphōs consultum quidnam facerent, they sent to Delphi to ask what they should do. Nep.

V. Clauses containing a general truth usually conform to the law for the sequence of tenses, at variance with the English idiom:

Quanta conscientiae vis esset, ostendit, he showed how great is the power of conscience. Cic.

VI. Clauses denoting consequence or result generally express absolute time, and are thus independent of the law of sequence.<sup>2</sup> They thus admit the Present or Perfect after historical tenses:

Epaminondas fide sie ūsus est, ut possit jūdieārī, 2 Epaminondas used such

treated as the Historical Perfect. The thought is as follows: Since in the preceding topics I set forth the aids which you have, I will now speak, etc.

<sup>1</sup> Literally, I hope it will be that it may happen. Here fore shares the tense of spērē, and is accordingly followed by the Present, continuat; but below it shares tho tense of spērāverat, and is accordingly followed by the Imperfect, different.

2 This peculiarity arises from the fact that the result of a past action may itself be

fidelity that it may be judged. Nep. Adeō excellebat Aristīdēs abstinentiā, ut Jūstus sit appellātus, Aristīdes so excelled in self-control, that he has been called the Just. Nep.

VII. For the sequence of tenses in the indirect discourse, see 525.

- 496. Future Time in the Subjunctive.—When the Future is used in the principal clause, the Future and Future Perfect tenses, wanting in the Latin Subjunctive, are supplied in the subordinate clauses as follows:
- I. The Fature is supplied—(1) after a principal tense by the Present, and (2) after an historical tense by the Imperfect:

Omnia sie agentur ut bellum scdetur, all things shall be so managed that the war will be brought to a close. Cie. Loquebantur, etiam eum vellet Caesar, sese non esse pugnatures, they were saying that they would not fight even when Caesar should wish it. Caes.

II. The Future Perfect is supplied—(1) after a principal tense by the Perfect, and (2) after an historical tense by the Peuperfect:

Respondet sī id sit factum, sē noeitūrum nēminī, he replies that if this should be done (shall have been done) he will harm no one. Caes. Appārēbat rēgnātūrum, quī vīcisset, it was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.

NOTE 1.—The Future and the Future Perfect tenses are often supplied in the same way, even when the Future does not occur in the principal clause, provided the idea of future time can be easily inferred from the context:

Vereor në labërem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor. Cic. Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Quid hostes consilii caperent, exspectabant, they waited to see what plan the enemy would adopt. Caes. Delitui, dum vela dedissent, I hid myself until they should have set sail. Verg.

Note 2.—When the idea of future time must be especially emphasized in the subordinate clause, the periphrastic forms in rus are used: <sup>2</sup>

Incertum est quam longa vita futura sit, it is uncertain how long life will continue. Cic. Incertum erat quō missūrī clāssem forent, it was uncertain whither they would send the flect. Liv.

Note 3.—The Future Perfect is sometimes supplied in the Passive by futurus sim and futurus essem with the Perfect Participle: <sup>2</sup>

Non dubito quin confecta jam res futura sit, I do not doubt that the thing will have been already accomplished. Cic.

present, and may thus be expressed by a principal tense. When the result belongs to the present time, the Present is used: possit jūdicārī, may be jūdged now'; when it is represented as completed, the Perfect is used: nit appetlātus, 'has been called' (i. e., even to the present day); but when it is represented as simultaneous with the action on which it depends, the Imperfect is used in accordance with the general rule (491).

1 Sedetur, referring to the same time as agentur, and vellet, referring to the same

time as esse pūgnātūros, both denote future time.

<sup>2</sup> Other traditional periphrastic forms, rarely used in either voice, are—for the Future, futurum sit ut with the Present Subjunctive, and futurum esset ut with the Imperfect; and for the Future Perfect, futurum sit ut with the Perfect, and futurum esset ut with the Pluperfect.

#### II. Subjunctive in Clauses of Purpose.

### RULE XLII.-Purpose.

## 497. The Subjunctive is used to denote Purpose:

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, etc.:

Missī sunt quī (=ut ii) cōnsulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo (who should, or that they should). Nep. Missī sunt dēlectī quī Thermopylās occupārent, picked men were sent to take possession of Thermopylae. Nep. Domum, ubi habitāret, lēgit, he selectal a house where he might dwell (that he might dwell in it). Cic. Locum petit, unde (= ut inde) hostem invādat, he seeks a position from which he may (that from it he may) attack the enemy. Liv.

## II. With ut, nē, quō, quōminus:

Entitur ut vineat, he strives that HE MAY CONQUER. Cic. Punit no pececetur, he punishes that crime MAY not BE COMMITTED. Sen. Legum ideireo servi sumus, ut liberi esse possimus, we are servants of the law for this reason, that we may be free. Cic. Medico dare quo sit studiosior, to give to the physician, that (by this means) he may be more attentive. Cic. Non recusavit quominus poenam subiret, he did not refuse to submit to punishment. Nep.

Ut or uti and ne are the usual conjunctions in clauses denoting purpose.
 A correlative, ideō, idcircō, eō, etc., sometimes precedes, as in the third example under 11.

Note.-With a connective ne becomes neve, neu, rarely neque; see 483, 3:

Lègem tulit ne quis accusaretur neve multaretur, he proposed a law that no one should be accused or punished. Nep.

2.  $Qu\bar{o}$ , 'by which,' 'that,' is sometimes used in clauses denoting purpose, especially with comparatives, as in the fourth example under II.  $Qu\bar{o}minus$ , 'by which the less,' 'that thus the less,' 'that not,' is simply  $qu\bar{o}$  with the comparative minus. It is sometimes used after verbs of hindering, opposing, and the like, as in the last example under II.

Note.—Quō sētius also occurs in the sense of quōminus; see Cic. Inv., II., 45.

498. Clauses of Purpose readily pass into Object Clauses,2

¹ The Subjunctive of Purpose is doubtless in origin a Subjunctive of Desire, expressing the desire or command implied in the action of the principal verb: Të rogo ut eum juvës, I ask you to aid him (I ask you, so aid him). Here the second clause, originally independent, contains the desire, wish, involved in rogo. Vereor në laborem angeam, I feur that I shall increase the labor (I fear, let me not increase the labor). Praestë crit pontifex, qui comitia habeat, the pontiff will be present to hold the comitia (the pontiff will be present, let him hold the comitia). Liv. See Delbrück, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ,' pp. 59-62.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> An Object Clause is one which has become virtually the object of a verb. Thus, in 'opto ut id audiātis,' the clause ut id audiātis has become the object of opto, 'I desiro.'

but they still retain the Subjunctive. Thus the Subjunctive is used—

I. With verbs signifying Desire and its Expression; hence decision, decree, etc.:  $^{\rm I}$ 

Opto ut id audiātis, I desire (pray) that you may hear this. Cic. Ut milli aedēs aliquās condūcās volō, I wish that you would hire a house for me. Plaut. Senātus cēnsuerat, utī Aeduōs dēfenderet, the senate had decreed that he should defend the Aedui. Caes. Servis imperat ut filiam dēfendant, he commands his servants to defend his daughter. Cic. Tē hortor ut legās, I exhort you to read. Cic. Tē rogō ut eum juvēs, I ask you to aid him. Cic. Ā rēge petivērunt nē inimīcīssimum suum sēcām habēret, they asked from the king that he would not keep his worst enemy with him. Nep.

Note.—Verbs of determining, deciding—etatuō, cinstituō, dècernō, etc.—generally take the Subjunctive when a new subject is introduced, otherwise the Infinitive (533, 1.,1):

Constituerat, ut tribunus quereretur, he had arranged tiat the tribune should enter the complaint. Sall. Senatus decrevit, darent operam consules, the senate decreed that the consules should attend to it. Sall. Manere decrevit, he decided to remain. Nep.

II. With verbs and expressions denoting Effort (striving for a purpose, attaining a purpose) or Impulse (urging to effort): 2

Contendit ut vineat, he strives to conquer. Cie. Cūrāvī ut bene vīverem, Itook care to lead a good life. Sen. Efficit ut imperātor mitterītur, he caused a commander to be sent (attained his purpose). Nep. Movēmur ut bonī sīmus, we are influenced to be good. Cie.

Note 1.—Some verbs of endeavoring, striving, as  $e\bar{e}$  nor, contendo,  $n\bar{e}$  tor, studeo, and  $tent\bar{o}$ , generally take the Infinitive when no new subject is introduced; see 533:

Locum oppugnäre contendit, he praceeds to storm the city. Caes. Tentäb $\bar{\text{o}}$  d $\bar{\text{o}}$  hoe dicere, I will attempt to speak of this. Quint.

Note 2.—Ut with the Subjunctive sometimes forms with facto or ago, rarely with est, a circumlocution for the Indicative: facto ut dicam = die5; facto ut scribam = scribo: Invitus facto ut recorder, I unwillingly recall. Cic.

## III. With verbs and expressions denoting Fear, Anxiety, Danger: 3

Timeō, ut labōrēs sustineās, I fear that you will not endure the labors. Cic. Timēbam nē ēvenīrent ea, I feared that those things would happen. Cic. Vereor nē labōrem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor. Cic. Periculum est nē ille tē verbīs obruat, there is danger that he will overwhelm you with words. Cic.

Note 1.—By a difference of idiom, ut must here be rendered by that not, and  $n\bar{e}$  by that or lest. The Latin treats the clause as a wish or purpose.<sup>4</sup>

¹ As optō, postulō; cinscō, dēcernō, statuō, constituō, etc.; volŏ, malō; admoneō, moncō, hortor; ōrō, rogō; imperō, praecipiō, etc.

As enitor, contendo, studeo; curo, id ago, operam do, etc.; facio, efficio, impetro, consequor, etc.; cogo, impello, moveo, etc.

<sup>3</sup> As metuő, timeő, vercor; periculum est, cüra est, etc.

<sup>4</sup> The Subjunctive of Desire is manifest if we make the subordinate clause inde-

Note 2.—After verbs of fearing,  $n\bar{e}$   $n\bar{e}n$  is sometimes used for nt-regularly so after negative clauses:

Vereor në non possit, I fear that he will not be able. Cie.

Note 3 .- Verbs of fearing admit the Infinitive in the same sense as in English:

Vereor laudare, I fear (hesitate) to praise. 1 Cic.

ture), so to speak, of life. Cic.

499. Peculiarities.—Expressions of Purpose present the following peculiarities:

1. Ut nē, rarely ut non, is sometimes used for nē:

Praedixit, ut në lëgatës dimitterent, he charged them not to (that they should not) release the delegates. Nep. Ut plura non dieam, not to say more (i. e., that I may not). Cie.

2. Ut is sometimes omitted, especially after  $vo^{\dagger}\tilde{b}$ ,  $n\bar{a}l\bar{b}$ ,  $m\bar{a}l\bar{b}$ ,  $faci\bar{c}$ , and after verbs of directing, urging, etc. Nē is often omitted after  $cav\check{e}$ :

Tũ velim sĩs, I desire that you may bc. Cic. Fão habeas, see (make) that you have. Cic. Senatus decrevit darent operam consults, the renate decreed that the consuls should see to it. Sall. Cave facias, beware of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.

Note.—Clauses with ut or nê are sometimes inserted parenthetically in sentences:

Amicos, optimam vitae, ut ita dicam, 2 suppellectilem, priends, the best treasure (furni-

3. Clauses of Purpose sometimes pass into Substantive Clauses, which, like indeclinable nouns, are used in a variety of constructions:

Per eum stetit quominus dimicārētur,3 it was owing to him (stood through him) that the battle was not fought. Caes. Volo ut mihi respondeās,3 I wish that you would answer me. Cie. Feeit pacem his condicionibus, ne qui adficerentur exsilio,3 he made peace on these terms, that none should be punished with exile. Nep.

Note 1 .- For the Different Forms of Substantive Clauses, see 540.

Note 2.—Clauses with  $qu\bar{o}minus$  sometimes lose the original idea of Purpose and denote  $Result\,;^4$ 

Non deterret sapientem mors quominus reli publicae consulat, death does not det.r a wise man from deliberating for the republic. Cic.

pendent, as it was originally: Ifear, so may you endure the labors, an affirmative wish; Ifear, may I not increase the labor, a negative wish; hence  $n\hat{\epsilon}$ .

1 Compare vereor laudāre, 'I fear to peaise,' with vereor në laudem, 'I fear that I shall peaise.'

<sup>2</sup> The Subjunctive in this and similar clauses may be explained either as a Subjunctive of *Purpose* dependent upon a verb understood, or as a Subjunctive of *Desire*; see 483.

In the first example, the clause queminus dimicaretur has become apparently the subject of stetit; in the second, ut mihi respondens, the object of colo; and in the third, no qui adficerentur exsilie, an appositive to condicionibus.

4 Such a transition from Purpose, denoting an Intended Result, to a Simple Result is easy and natural.

#### III. SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF RESULT.

#### RULE XLIII.—Result.

## 500. The Subjunctive is used to denote Result'—

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, cūr, etc.:

Non is sum qui (= ut ego) his ūtar, I am not such a one as to use these things. Cic. Innocentia est adfectió tális animi, quae (= ut ea) noceat nēmin, innocence is such a state of mind as injunes no one, or as to injune no one. Cic. Neque quisquam fuit ubi nostrum jūs obtinetēmus, nor was there any one with whom (where) we could obtain our right. Cic. Est vēro cūr quis Jūnomem laedere nolit, there is indeed a reason why (so that) one would be unwilling to offend Juno. Ovid.

#### II. With ut, ut non, quin:

Ita vīxit ut Athēniēnsibus esset cārissimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. Ita laudō, ut non pertimēscam, I so praise as not to fear. Cie. Ego in pūblicīs causīs ita sum versātus ut dēfenderim multōs, I have been so occupied in public suits that I have defended many. Cie. Nihil est tam diflicile quīn (ut nōn) investīgārī possit, nothing is so difficult that it may not be investigated. Ter.

Note 1.— $Qu\bar{\imath}$  is often preceded by  $is, t\bar{a}lis, tantus,$  or some similar word; and ut, by  $ita, s\bar{\imath}c, tam, ade\bar{\imath}, tantopere$ , or some similar particle; see examples.

Note 2.—In Plantus and Terenee ut sometimes accompanies  $qu\bar{\imath}$ :

Ita ut qui neget, so that he refuses. Ter.

Note 8.—For the Subjunctive denoting a result after quominus, see 499, 3, note 2.

- 501. Clauses of Result readily pass into Substantive Clauses, but they still retain the Subjunctive. Thus the Subjunctive is used—
  - I. In Subject Clauses. Thus-
- 1. With impersonal verbs signifying it happens, remains, follows, is lawful, is allowed, is distant, is, etc.: <sup>2</sup>

Fit ut quisque délectetur, it happens that every one is delighted. Cic. Sequitur ut falsum sit, it follows that it is false. Cic. Restat ut doceam, it remains that I should show. Cic. Ex quo efficitur ut voluptas non sit summum bonum, from which it follows that pleasure is not the highest good. Cic.

2. With predicate nouns and adjectives:

Mos est ut no lint, it is their custom not to be willing (that they are unwilling). Cic. Proximum est, ut doceam, the next point is, that I show. Cic. Non est dubium quin beneficium sit, that it is a benefit, is not doubtful. Sen.

<sup>2</sup> As accidit, contingit, evenit, fit, restat, sequitur, licet, abest, est, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Subjunctive of *Result* is doubtless in origin a *Potential* Subjunctive: *Non is sum quī hīs ntar*, 'I am not one who *would use* (or *is likely to use*) these things.' Hence this Subjunctive takes the negative  $n\bar{e}n$  ( $ut\ n\bar{e}n$ ) like the *Potential* Subjunctive, while the Subjunctive of *Purpose* takes the negative  $n\bar{e}$  like the Subjunctive of *Desire*.

Note.—For the Subjunctive with ut, with or without ne, in questions expressive of impatience or surprise, see 486, IL, note.

- II. In OBJECT CLAUSES. Thus-
- In clauses introduced by ut after facio, cfficio, of the action of irrational forces:

Sol efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom (i. e., produces that result). Cie. Splendor vester facit ut peceare sine periculo non possitis, your conspicuous position causes this result, that you can not err without peril. Cie. See 498, II.

2. In clauses introduced by quin after verbs of Doubting:

Non dubitābis quin sint beātī, you will not doubt that they are happy. Cie.

III. In Clauses in Apposition with nouns or pronouns:

Habet hoe virtus ut delectet, rirtue has this advantage, that it delights. Cie. Est hoe vitium, ut invidia gloriae comes sit, there is this fault, that enry is the companion of glory. Nep.

Note.—For the different forms of substantive clauses, see 540.

- 502. Peculiarities.—Expressions of Result present the following peculiarities:
- Ut is sometimes omitted—regularly with oportet, generally with opus
  est and necesse est:

Te oportet virtus trahat, it is necessary that virtue should attract you. Cic. Causam habeat necesse est, it is necessary that it should have a cause. Cic.

2. The Subjunctive occurs with quam-with or without ut:

Liberalius quam ut posset, too freely to be able (more freely than so as to be able). Nep. Imponebat amplius quam ferre possent, he imposed more than they were able to bear.

3. After tantum abest ut, denoting result, a second ut of result sometimes occurs:

Philosophia, tantum abest ut laudētur, ut etiam vituperētur, so far is it from the truth (so much is wanting) that philosophy is praised, that it is even censured. Cic.

- 503. In Relative Clauses, the Subjunctive of Result shows the following Special Constructions:
- I. The Subjunctive is used in relative clauses to characterize an Indefinite or General Antecedent:

Quid est quod të dëlectare possit, what is there which can delight you? Cie. Nune dieis aliquid quod ad rem pertineat, now you state something which belongs to the subject. Cie. Sunt qui putent, there are some who think. Cie. Nëmo est qui non cupiat, there is no one who does not desire. Cie.

<sup>1</sup> Here tam, tālis, or some such word, is often understood.

Note 1.—Restrictive clauses with quod, as quod scium, 'as far as I know,' quod meminerim, 'as far as I remember,' etc., take the Subjunctive:

Non ego të, quod sciam, unquam ante hunc diem vidi. As far as 1 know, I hare never seen you before this day. Plaut.

Note 2.—Quod, or a relative particle,  $ub\bar{t}$ , undv,  $qv\bar{v}$ ,  $c\bar{v}r$ , etc., with the Subjunct rv, is used after est, "there is reason";  $n\bar{t}n$  est,  $ni.cil\ cv\bar{t}$ , "there is no reason";  $quid\ est$ , "what reason is there?"  $n\bar{v}n$  habeā,  $nihil\ habea$ , "1 have no reason":

Est quod gaudeās, there is reason why you should rejoice, or so that you may. Plant. Non est quod crédas, there is no reason why you should believe. Sen. Nihil habeb, quod incusem senectuem, I have no reason why I should accuse old age. Cic. Quid est cur virtus ipsa non efficiat beatos, what reason is there why virtue itself should not make men happy? Cic.

Note 3. - The Indicative is freely used in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents:

1) In poetry 1 and late prose:

Sunt quos juvat, there are some whom it delights. Hor.

2) Even in the best prose, when the fact itself is to be made prominent:

Sunt qui non audent dicere, there are some who do not dare to speak. Cic. Multa sunt, quae dici possunt, there are many things which may be said. Cic.

#### II. The Subjunctive is used in relative clauses—

#### 1. After ūnus, solus, and the like :

Sapientia est una, quae maestitiam pellat, wisdom is the only thing which dispels sadness (which would dispel). Cic. Soli centum erant qui creari possent, there were only one hundred who could be appointed (such that they could be). Liv.

## 2. After dignus, indignus, idoneus, and aptus:

Fābulae dīgnae sunt, quae legantur, the fables are worthy to be read (that they should be read). Cie. Rūfum Caesar idōneum jūdicāverat quem mitteret, Caesar had judged Rufus a suitable person to send (whom he might send). Caes.

## 3. After comparatives with quam:

Damna mājora sunt quam quae  $(=ut\ \epsilon a)$  aestimārī possint, the losses are too great to be estimated (greater than so that they can be). Liv.

504. Quīn, 'who not,' that not,' etc., is often used to introduce a result after negatives and interrogatives implying a negative. Thus—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Especially in early poetry, as in Plautus and Terence.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Quin is a compound of the relative qui and nē, and appears to be used both as an indeclinable relative pronoun, who not, and as a relative particle, by which not, how not, etc. Some clauses with quin may perhaps be best explained as indirect questions (529, I.). Quin, meaning why not? often used in independent clauses, is a compound of the interrogative quis or qui, and nē: Quin th hōc fucis, 'why do you not do it?' Liv.

As nemö, nüllus, nihil, quis? non dubite, non dubitum est: nem multum abest, paulum abest, nihil abest, quid abest? nem, rir, aegre abstineo; mihi non tempero; non retineor; non, nihil praetermitto; facere non possum, fieri non potest; nunquum with a large class of verbs.

1. Quin is often used in the sense of qui non, quae non, etc., as after nomo, nullus, nihil, quis?

Adest nemó, quin videat, there is no one present who does not s.e. Cie. Nemó est quin audierit, there is no one who has not heard. Cie. Quis est quin eernat, who is there who does not pereeive? Cie. Nalla fuit eivitas quin mitteret, there was no state which did not send. Caes. Nalla pietura fuit quin  $(=quan\ nom)$  inspexerit, there was no painting which he did not inspect. Cie. Nallum intermisi diem, quin  $(=quo\ nom)$  or ut  $eo\ nom)$  aliquid darem, 1 allowed no day to pass without giving something (on which I would not give something). Cie.

Note. Quin can often be best rendered by but or by without or from with a participial noun in -1NG; see the last example under 1; also the last under 2.

2. Quin is often used in the ordinary sense of  $ut n\bar{o}n$ :

Nomo est tam fortis quin perturbitur, no one is so brave as not to be disturbed. Caes. Nihil est tam difficile quin investigari possit, nothing is so deficult that it may not be investigated. Ter. Retineri non poterant quin tela edicerent, they could not be restrained from harling their weapons. Caes.

Note.-Is or id is sometimes expressed after quin:

Nihil est quin id interest, there is nothing which does not perish. Cic.

- 3.  $Qn\bar{n}n$  is used in the sense of  $ut n\bar{o}n$  or of ut in subject and object clauses (501):
  - 1) With facere non possum, fieri non potest, etc., in the sense of ut non:

Facere non possum quin litteras mittam, I can not but send a letter. Cic. Effici non potest quin cos oderim, it can not be (be effected) that I should not hate them. Cic.

2) With negative expressions implying doubt and uncertainty, in the sense of ut:

Agamemnon non dubitat quin Troja sit peritura, Agamemnon does not doubt that Troy will full (perish). Cie. Non dubitari debet quin fuerint poètae, it ought not to be doubted that there were poets. Cie. Quis Ignorat quin tria genera sint, who is ignorant that there are three races? Cie.

4. Quin is sometimes used in the sense of quominus: 2

Quin loquar hace, nûn-mam mê potes dêterrire, you can never deter me from saying this. Plant. Non dêterret sapientem mors quôminus rei públicae cônsulat, death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic. Cie. Non recûsavit, quôminus poenam subiret, he did not refuse to submit to punishment. Nep. Neque recûsare quin armis contendant, and that they do not refuse to contend in arms. Caes.

Note.—For non quin in Causal Clauses, see 516, 2.

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced as if written conicerent; see 36, 4, with foot-note 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> As after verbs of *hindering*, refusing, and the like. Observe that in the examples  $d\bar{e}terre\bar{o}$  and recuso are used both with  $qu\bar{v}n$  and with  $qu\bar{v}minus$ . They also admit the Subjunctive with  $n\bar{e}$  or the Infinitive; see 505, II.

505. Construction of Special Verbs.—Some verbs admit two or more different constructions. Thus—

- I. Dubito admits-
- 1. Quin, WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE, if it stands in a negative sentence; see 501, 3, 2).
  - 2. An Indirect Question (529, I.):

Non dubito quid putes, I do not doubt what you think. Cie. Dubito an ponam, I doubt whether I should not place. 1 Nep.

3. The Accusative with the Infinitive:

Quis dubitat patère Europam, who doubts that Europe is exposed? Curt.

4. The simple Infinitive, when it means to hesitate:

Non dubitem dicere, I should not hesitate to say. Cic. Dubitamus virtutem extendere factis, do we hesitate to extend our glory (valor) by our deeds! Verg.

- II. Verbs of hindering, opposing, refusing, and the like, admit-
- 1. The Subjunctive with ne, quin, or quominus:2

Impedior në plura dicam, I am prevented from saying (that I may not say) more. Cic. Sententiam në diceret recusavit, he refused to give an opinion. Cic. Neque recusare quin armis contendant, and that they do not refuse to contend in arms. Caes. Intercludor dolore quominus plura scribam, I am prevented by sorrow from writing more. Cic.

2. The Accusative with the Infinitive, or the simple Infinitive:

Num īgnobilitās sapientem beātum esse prohibebit, will obscurity prevent a wise man from being happy? Cie. Quae facere recūsem, which I should refuse to do. Hor.

## IV. Moods in Conditional Sentences.

**506.** Every conditional sentence consists of two distinct parts, expressed or understood—the *Condition* and the *Conclusion*:

Sī negem, mentiar, if I should deny it, I should speak falsely.3 Cic.

## RULE XLIV.—Conditional Sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn.

507. Conditional sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, take—

I. The Indicative in both clauses to assume the supposed case:

¹ That is, I am inclined to think that I should place. Observe that dubito on means 'I doubt whether not'='1 am inclined to think,' and dubito num, 'I doubt whether': Dubito num debeam, 'I doubt whether I ought.' Plin.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> For the use of  $qu\bar{u}n$ , see **504**.  $N\bar{e}$  and  $qu\bar{v}minus$  may follow either affirmatives or negatives.

<sup>3</sup> Here sī negem is the condition, and mentiar, the conclusion.

Sī spīritum dūcit, vīvit, if he breathes, he is alire. Cic. Sī tot exempla virtūtis non movent, nihil unquam movēbit, if so many examples of valor do not move (you), nothing will ever move (you). Liv.

II. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as possible:

Dies deficiat, si velim causam defendere, the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause. Cic. Improbe feceris, nisi menueris, you would do wrong, if you should not give warning. Cic.

III. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as *contrary to fact:* 

Plūribus verbīs ad tē scrīberem, sī rēs verba dēsīderāret, I should write to you more fully (with more words), if the ease required words. Cic. Sī voluisset, dīmicāsset, if he had wished, he would have jought. Nep.

1. Two clauses without any conjunction sometimes have the force of a conditional sentence:

Negat quis, negō, does any one deny, I deny. Ter. Rogēs mē, nihil respondeam, ask me, I shull make no reply. Cie. Tū māgnam partem, sineret dolor, habērēs, you would have had a large share, had grief permitted. Verg. Lacesse; jam vidēbis furentem, provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frautic. Cie. 2

2. A condition is sometimes introduced by the relative qui, quae, etc. =  $s\bar{\imath}$  is,  $s\bar{\imath}$  quis,  $s\bar{\imath}$  qui, etc. :

Qui secum loqui poterit, sermonem alterius non requiret, if any one (lit., he who) shall be able to converse with himself, he will not need the conversation

<sup>1</sup> See 510, note 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> From these examples it is manifest that a conditional particle is not an essential part of a conditional sentence. Originally the two clauses, the condition and the conclusion, were independent, and the mood in each was determined by the ordinary principles which regulate the use of moods in principal clauses; see 483: 485. Hence the Indicative was used in treating of facts, and the Subjunctive or Imperative in all other cases, Si, probably the Locative case of a pronoun, meaning (1) at that time or in that manner. and (2) at any time or in any manner, has nothing whatever to do with the mood, but merely denotes that the conclusion is connected with the condition. Thus: negat, nego, 'he denies (i. e., assume that he denies), I deny'; sī negat, negō, 'he denies at some time, then I deny'; dies deficiat, si velim, etc., 'let me wish (Subjunctive of Desire) at any time, etc., then the day would fail me.' The Subjunctive in conditions is a Subjunctire of Desire with nearly the force of the Imperative, which may indeed be used for it when \$\vec{s}\vec{i}\$ is omitted, as lacesse, 'provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him).' In conclusions the Subjunctive is generally potential, as dies deficial, 'the day would fail,' but sometimes it is the Subjunctive of Desire, for which the Imperative may be substituted; as, pereum, si poterunt, 'may I perish if they shall be able'; si pecciri, ignisce, 'if I bayo erred, pardon me.' See Delbrück, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ,' pp. 70-74; 171-182.

of another. Cic. Errat longe, qui credat, etc., he greatly errs who supposes, etc. (i. e., if any one supposes, he greatly errs). Ter. Hace qui videat, nonne cogătur confiteri, etc., if any one should see these things, would he not be compelled to admīt, etc.? Cic.

#### 3. A condition is sometimes introduced by cum:

Ea cum dixissent, quid responderes, if (when) they had said that, what should you reply? Cic.

Note 1.—The condition is sometimes ironical, especially with  $nisi\ v\bar{e}r\bar{o}, nisi\ forte,$  with the Indicative, and with  $quasi, quasi\ v\bar{e}r\bar{o},$  with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive:

Nisi forte însăuit, unless perhaps he is insane. Cic. Quasi vêrê necesse sit, as if indeed it were necessary. Caes.

Note 2.—Ita—sī, 'so-if,' means only—if. Sī quidem, 'if indeed,' sometimes has nearly the force of since:

Hoc ita jūstum est, sī est voluntārium, this is just only if (on condition that) it is roluntary. Cic. Antiquissimum est genus počtārum, sī quidem Homērus fuit anto Römam conditam, the class of poets is very ancient, since Homer lived before the founding of Rome. Cic.

Note 3.—Nisi or nī, 'if not,' is sometimes best rendered but or except:

Nesció, nisi hốc video, I know not, but (except that) I observe this. Cic.

Note 4.—Nisi sī means except if, unless perhaps, unless:

Nisi sī quī scrīpsit, unless some one has written, Cic.

Note 5.—For sī to be rendered to see if, to see whether, etc., see 529, 1, note 1.

Note 6.—For quod si, quod ni, quod nisi, see 453, 6.

NOTE 7.—The condition may be variously supplied, as by a participle, by the ablative absolute, or by the oblique case of a noun:

Non potestis, voluptate omnia dirigentes (= sī dirigitis), retinere virtutem, you can not retain your manhood, if you arrange all things with reference to pleasure. Cic. Recte facto (= sī rēctē factum erit), laus proponitur, if it is (shall be) well done, praise is offered. Cic. Nemô sine spē (= nisi spem habēret) sē offerret ad mortem, no one without a hope (if he had not a hope) would expose himself to death. Cic.

Note 8.-For Conditional Sentences in the Indirect Discourse, see 527.

**508.** First Form.—Conditional sentences with the *Indicative in both clauses*, assuming the supposed case as *real*, may base upon it any statement which would be admissible if the supposed case were a known fact:

Sī haec cīvitās est, cīvis sum ego, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic. Sī nōn licēbat, nōn necesse erat, if it was not lawful, it was not necessary. Cic. Sī vīs, dabō tibī testēs, if you wish, I will furnish you witnesses. Cie. Plūra serībam, sī plūs otīī habuerō, I will write more if I shall have (shall have had) more leisure. Cie. Dolōrem sī nōn poterō frangere, oecultābō, if I shall not be able to overcome sorrow, I shall conceal it. Cie. Parvī sunt forīs arma nisi est cōnsilium domī, arms are of little value abroad, unless there is wisdom at home. Cie. Sī domī sum, etc.; sīn¹ forīs sum, etc., if I am at home, etc.; but if I am abroad, etc. Plaut. Nī putō, if I do not think. Cie.

<sup>1</sup> Sīn from sī nē, 'if not,' 'if on the contrary,' 'but if,' properly introduces a condition in contrast with another condition expressed or implied. Thus, sīn forīs is in confast with sī domī, and means but if abroad.

- The Condition is generally introduced, when affirmative, by si, with or without other particles, as quidem, modo, etc., and when negative, by si non, nisi, ni.
- 2. The Time may be present, past, or future, but it need not be the same in both clauses. Thus the Present or the Future Perfect in the condition is often followed by the Future, as in the third and fourth examples.<sup>1</sup>
- 8. Si non and nisi are often used without any perceptible difference of meaning; but strictly si non introduces the negative condition on which the conclusion depends, while nisi introduces a qualification or an exception. Thus, in the s cond example above, the meaning is, if it was not lawful, it follows that it was not necessary; while in the fourth the meaning is, arms are of little value abroad, except when there is veisdom at home,
- 4. The Concursion irrespective of the condition may assume a considerable variety of form. Thus:

Redargue më si mentior, refute me if I speak fulsely. Cic. Moriar, ni putò, may I die, if I do not think. Cic. Quid timeam, si beatus futirus sum, why should I fear if I am going to be happy? Cic. Si quid habës certius, velim 2 seire, if you have any information (anything more certain), I should like to know it. Cic.

- 5. General Truths may be expressed conditionally-
- 1) By the Indicative in both clauses, as in the sixth example under 508.
- 2) By the Second Person of the Subjunctive used of an indefinite you (= any one) in the condition, with the Indicative in the conclusion:

Memoria minuitur, visi eam exerceas, the memory is impaired, if you do not (one does not) exercise it. Cie. Nulla est excusuitó peccaii, si amici causa peccaveris, it is no excuse for a fault, that you have committed it for the make of a friend. Cic.

509. Second Form.—Conditional sentences with the *Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses* represent the condition as *possible*:

Hace sī tēcum patria loquātur, nonne impetrāre dēbeat, if your country should speak thus with you, ought she not to obtain her request? Cie. Improbe fēcerīs, nisi monuerīs, you would do wrong, if you should not give warning. Cie. See also 507. II.

Note 1.—The Time denoted by these tenses, the *Present* and the *Perfect*, is generally either present or future, and the difference between the two is that the former regards the action in its *progress*, the latter in its *completion*. Thus, *loquātur*, 'should speak' (now or at any future time); so of *diheat*; but *ficeris*, though referring to the same time as *loquātur*, regards the action as *completed*.<sup>3</sup>

Note 2.—The Present Subjunctive is occasionally used in conditional sentences, even when the condition is in itself contrary to fact:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A conditional sentence with the Future Perfect in the condition and the Future in the conclusion, as  $p(\tilde{u}ra\ keribum,\ si\ phis\ \tilde{e}tii\ habnero,\ corresponds to the Greek with <math>\tilde{\epsilon}d\nu$  or  $\tilde{u}\nu$  with the Aorist Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion; as,  $\nu \tilde{\epsilon}os\ \tilde{u}\nu$  morigns,  $\gamma \tilde{\eta} \rho as\ \tilde{\epsilon}\xi \epsilon ss\ \tilde{v}\theta a\lambda \tilde{\epsilon}s$ , if you will labor while young, you will have a prosperous old age.

<sup>2</sup> Observe that in each of these examples the mood in the conclusion is entirely independent of the condition. Thus, redurque is a command; moriur, a prayer, Subjunctive of Desire; quid timeam, a deliberative question (484, V.); and relim, a Potential Subjunctive (486, note 1).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> As the Present Subjunctive in point of time is very closely related to the Future Indicative in conditional sentences, so the Perfect Subjunctive is very closely related to the Future Perfect Indicative, though it may refer to past time.

Tũ sĩ hắc sĩs, aliter sentiüs, if you were I (if you were in my place), you would think differently. Ter.

Note 3.—When dependent upon an historical tense, the Present and Perfect are of course generally changed to the Imperfect and Pluperfect, by the law for Sequence of Tenses (490):

Metuit ne, si îret, retraheretur, he feared lest, if he should go, he would be brought back. Liv.

510. Third Form.—Conditional sentences with the *Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses* represent the supposed case as *contrary to fact*, and simply state what would have been the result if the condition had been fulfilled:

Sapientia non expeteretur, sī nihil efficeret, wisdom would not be sought (as it is), if it accomplished nothing. Cic. Sī optima tenere possemus, haud sāne consilio egeremus, if we were able to secure the highest good, we should not indeed need counsel. Cic. Sī voluisset, dimicāsset, if he had wished, he would have fought. Nep. Nūnquam abīsset, nisi sibī viam mūnīvisset, he would never have gone, if he had not prepared for himself a way. Cic. See also 507, 111.

Note I.—Here the *Imperfect* generally relates to present<sup>1</sup> time, as in the first and second examples; the Pluperfect to past time, as in the third and fourth examples.

NOTE 2.—The Imperfect sometimes relates to past time, especially when it expresses a continued action, or is accompanied by any word denoting past time:

Nec, si cuperës, tibi id facere licuisset, nor would you have been permitted to do it, if you had desired. Cic. Num Opinhum, si tum esses, temerarium evem putarës, would you have thought Opinius an audacious citizen if you had lived at that time? Cic.

- 511. A CONCLUSION of the FIRST FORM is sometimes combined with a CONDITION of the SECOND OF THIRD FORM. Thus—
- 1. The *Indicative* is often thus used in the conclusion (1) to denote a *general truth*, and (2) to emphasize a *fact*, especially with a condition introduced by nisi or  $n\bar{\imath}$ :<sup>2</sup>

Turpis exeŭsātiō est, sī quis fateātur, etc., it is a base excuse, if one admits, etc. Cic. Intrāre, sī possim, eastra hostium volō, I wish to enter the camp of the enemy, if I am able. Liv. Certāmen aderat, nī Fabius rem expedīsset, a contest was at hand, but Fabius (lit., if Fabius had not) adjusted the affair. Liv. Nee vēnī, nisi fāta loeum dedissent, nor should I have come, had not the fates assigned the place. Verg.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This use of the Imperfect to denote present time was developed from the ordinary force of the Subjunctive tenses. Thus the Present denotes that which is likely to be, the Imperfect that which was likely to be, and so by implication that which is not. Compare fail in the sense of was, but is not, 471, 1, 2).

 $<sup>^2</sup>$  Here the condition merely introduces a qualification or an exception; see 508,3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The force of the Indicative can not be easily shown in a translation, but the Latin conception is, *I have not come without the divine guidance* (expressed in the condition).

Note 1.—The Future Indicative is sometimes used in the conclusion because of its near relationship in force to the Present Subjunctive: 1

Si mittat, quid respondèbis, if he should send, what answer shall you gire? Lucr. Nec si cupias, licèbit, nor, if you should desire it, will it be allowed. Cic.

Note 2.—In a negative conclusion with a negative condition, the verb possum is generally in the Indicative:  $^2$ 

Neque amietiam tucri possumus, nisi amicos diligamus, nor should we be able to preserve friendship, if we should not love our friends. Cic.

NOTE 3.—The Historical Tens.s of verbs denoting Duly, Propriety, Necessity, Ability, and the like, in the conclusion of conditional sentences, are generally in the Indicative:

Quem, si ülla in të pietas esset, colere dëbëbas, whom you ought to have honored (and would have honored), if there were any filial affection in you. Cic. Vix castra, si oppāgnārētur, tūtāri poterat, he was hard'y able to defend the camp, if he should be attacked. Liv. Dēlēri excreitus potuit, si persecūti victörēs essent, the army might have been destroyed (and would have been), if the rid to s had pursued. Liv.

Note 4.—The *Historical Tenses* of the Indicative of still other verbs are sometimes similarly used when accompanied by paene or prope:

Pons iter paene hostibus dedit, ni unus vir suisset, the bridge almost furnished a passage to the enemy (and would have furnished it), had there not been one man. Liv.

2. The Periphrastic Forms in rus and dus in the conclusion of conditional sentences are generally in the Indicative: 3

Quid sī hostēs veniant, factūrī estis, what shall you do if the enemy should come? Liv. Sī quaerātur, indicandum est, if inquiry should be made, information must be given. Cie. Rehetīrī agrōs erant, nisi lītterās mīsisset, they would have left\* their lands, had he not sent a letter. Cie. Quid futūrum fuit, sī plēbs agitārī coepta esset, what would have been the result, if the plebeians had begun to be agitated? Liv. Sī vērum respondēre vellēs, hace erat dīcenda, if you wished to answer truly, this should have been said. Cic. Sī morātī essētis, moriendum omnībus fuit, if you had delayed, you must all have perished. Liv.

Note.—When the Perfect Indicative in the conclusion with the Subjunctive in the condition is brought into a construction which requires the Subjunctive, the tense remains unchanged, irrespective of the tense of the principal verb:

Adeo est inopia coactus ut, nisi timuisset, Galliam repetiturus fuerit,5 he was so

<sup>1</sup> See 479, with foot-note 3. A conditional sentence with the Present Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion, corresponds to the Greek ἐων with the Present Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion: τοῦτο εῶν σκοπῆτε, ενρήσετε, if you examine this, you will find.

<sup>2</sup> Here, too, the use of the Indicative grows out of the relationship between the meaning of possum, denoting ability, and that of the Potential Subjunctive denoting possibility.

3 The Indicative is here explained by the close relationship between the ordinary meaning of the Subjunctive, and that of the forms in rus and dus denoting that something is about to be done or ought to be done.

4 Lit., were about to leave, and so would have left, had he not, etc.

6 Here repetiturus fuerit is in the Subjunctive, not because it is in a conditional sentence, but because it is the Subjunctive of Result with ut; but it is in the Perfect, because, if it were not dependent, the Perfect Indicative would have been used.

pressed by want that, if he had not feared, he would have returned to Gaul. Liv. Haud dubium fuit, quin hisi firmata extrema agminis fuissent, ingens accipiend clades fuerit, there was no doubt that, had not the rear of the line been made strong, a great disaster must have been sustained. Liv. Quaeris quid potuerit amplius assequi, si Scipionis fuisset filius, you ask what more he could have attained, if he had been the son of Scipio. Cie.

512. A Conclusion of the Third Form (510) is sometimes combined with a Condition of the Second Form (509):

Sī tēcum loquantur, quid respondēres, if they should speak with you, what answer would you give? Cie.

## RULE XLV.—Conditional Clauses with dum, modo, āc sì, ut sī, etc.

## 513. Conditional clauses take the Subjunctive—

I. With dum, modo, dummodo, 'if only,' 'provided that'; dum nē, modo nē, dummodo nē, 'if only not,' 'provided that not': 2

Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, mental powers remain, if only industry remains. Cie. Dum res maneant, verba fingant, let them make words, if only the facts remain. Cie. Dumnodo repellat periculum, provided he may avert danger. Cie. Dum ne tibi videar, nen labore, provided I do not seem so to you, I do not care. Cie.

II. With āc sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tanquam, tanquam sī, velut, velut sī, 'as if,' 'than if,' involving an ellipsis of the real conclusion:

Perinde habēbō, āc sī scrīpsissēs, I shall regard it just as if (i. e., as I should if) you had written. Cic. Jacent, tanquam omnīnō sine animō sint, they lie as if (i. e., as they would lie if) they were entirely without mind. Cic. Quam sī vixerit tēcum, as if he had lived with you. Cic. Miserior es, quam sī oculōs non habērēs, you are more unhappy than (you would be) if you had not eyes. Cic. Crādēlitātem, velut sī adesset, horrēbant, they shuddered rat his cruelty as (they would) if he were present. Cacs. Ut sī in suam rem aliēna convertant, as if they should appropriate others' possessions to their own use. Cic. Tanquam audiant, as if they may hear. Sen.

Note 1.—In this form of conditional sentences, the *Present* <sup>3</sup> or *Imperfect* is used of *present* time, and the *Perfect* <sup>3</sup> or *Piuperfect* of *past* time; see examples above.

When not used in conditions, these conjunctions often admit the Indicative: Dum leges vigebant, while the laws were in force. Cic.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This Subjunctive is best explained as the Subjunctive of Desire, as indicated by the negative  $n\bar{e}$  (483, 3). Thus, modo permaneat industria, 'only let industry remain';  $dum\ n\bar{e}$  tibl' videar, 'let me not meanwhile seem so to you.' After  $dum\ and\ dummodo$  the Subjunctive may perhaps be explained as Potential, but the negative  $n\bar{e}$  renders such an explanation very doubtful.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The English idiom would lead us to expect only the *Imperfect* and *Pluperfect*, as under 510; but the Latin often regards the condition as *possible*, and thus uses the *Present* and *Perfect*, as under 509.

Note 2.— t'eu and sicuti are sometimes used like ac si, ut si, etc.:

Cen bella forent, as if there were wars. Verg. Sicuti audiri possent, as if they could be heard. Sall.

#### V. Moods in Concessive Clauses.

514. A concessive clause is one which concedes or admits something, generally introduced in English by though or although:

Quamquam itinere fessi erant, tamen procedunt, although they were weary with the journey, they still (yet) advanced. Sall.

Note.—The concessive particle is sometimes omitted:

Sed habeat, tamen, etc., but grant that he has it, yet, etc. Cic.

#### RULE XLVI.-Moods in Concessive Clauses.

### 515. Concessive clauses take-

I. Generally the *Indicative* in the best prose, when introduced by *quamquam*:

Quamquam intellegunt, tamen nunquam dieunt, though they understand, they never speak. Cie. Quamquam festinus, non est mora longa, though you are in haste, the delay is not long. Hor.

- II. The *Indicative* or *Subjunctive*, when introduced by *etsī*, *etiamsī*, *tametsī*, or *sī*, like conditional clauses with *sī*. Thus—
  - 1. The Indicative is used to represent the supposed case as a fact:

Gaudeō, etsī nihil ściŏ quod gaudeam, I rejoice, though I know no reason why I should rejoice. Plant.

2. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive, to represent the supposed case as possible:

Etsī nihil habeat in sē glōria, tamen virtūtem sequitur, though glory may not possess anything in itself, yet it follows virtue. Cie.

3. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive, to represent the supposed case as contrary to fact:

Etiamsī mors oppetenda esset, domī māllem, even ij death ought to be met, I should prefer to meet it at home. Cie.

III. The Subjunctive, when introduced by licet, quamvis, ut,  $n\bar{e}$ , cum, or the relative  $qu\bar{i}$ :

<sup>1</sup> Concessive clauses bear a close resemblance to conditional clauses both in form and in use. Sī optimum est, 'if it is best,' is a condition; etsī optimum est, 'even if (or though) it is best,' is a concession; the one assumes a supposed case, the other admits It. The Subjunctive in concessive clauses is in general best explained in the same way as in conditional clauses; see 507, 1, foot-note 2.

In origin licet is simply the impersonal verb of the same form, and the Subjunctive

Licet irrideat, plūs tamen ratio valebit, though he may deride, reason will yet avail more. Cic. Non tū possīs, quamvīs excellās, you would not be able, although you excel. Cic. Ut dēsint vīrēs, tamen est laudanda voluntās, though the strength fails, still the will should be approved. Ovid. Nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, though pain may not be the greatest evil, it is certainly an evil. Cic. Cum domī dīvitiae adfluerent, fuēre tamen cīvēs, etc., though wealth abounded at home, there were yet citizens, etc. Sall. Absolvite Verrem, quī (cum is) sē fatcātur pecūniās cēpisse, acquit Verres, though he confesses (who may confess) that he has accepted money. Cic.

Note 1 .- Quamquam takes the Subjunctive-

1) When the thought, irrespective of the concessive character of the clause, requires that mood;

Quamquam epulis careat senectus, though old age may be without its feasts. Cic.

2) Sometimes, even in the best prose, apparently without any special reason:

Quamquam no id quidem suspicionem habuerit, though not even that gave rise to any suspicion. Cic,

3) In poetry and in late prose, the Subjunctive with quamquam is not uncommon. In Tacitus it is the prevailing construction:

Quamquam invicti essent, although they were invincible. Verg. Quamquam plerique ad senectam pervenirent, although very many reached old age. Tac.

Note 2.—Quamquam and etsi sometimes have the force of yet, but yet, and yet:

Quamquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak? Cic. Etsi tibi assentior, and yet I assent to you. Cic

Note 8.—Quamris in the best prose takes the Subjunctive almost without exception, generally also in Livy and Nepos; but in poetry and in late prose it often admits the Indicative:

Erat dignităte regiă, quamvîs cărebat nomine, he was of royal dignity, though he was without the name. Nop.

Note  $4 - Qu\bar{\iota}$  and eum, used concessively, generally take the Indicative in Plautus and Terence, and sometimes even in classical prose:

Audēs praedicāre id, domī tē esse nunc quī hīc ades, do you dare to assert this, that you are now at home, although you are here present? Plaut. Cum tabulās emunt, tamen nequeunt, though they purchase paintings, they are yet unable. Sall. Cum Sicilia vexāta est, tamen, though Sicily was disturbed, yet. Cic.

Note 5.—Ut-sic, or ut-itu, 'though-yet' (lit., 'as-so'), involving emparison rather than concession, does not require the Subjunctive:

Ut a proelis quietem habuerant, ita non cessaverant ab opere, though (lit., as) they had had rest from buttles, yet (lit., so) they had not ceased from work. Liv.

Note 6.—Quamvis and quantumvis, meaning 'as much as you please,' 'however much,' may accompany licet with the Subjunctive:

Non possis tu, quantumvis licet excellas, you would not be able, however much you may excel. Cic.

clause which follows, developed from Result (501, 1.), is its subject. Thus, in licet irrideat (lit., 'that he may decide is allowed'), irrideat is according to the Latin conception the subject of lieet. Quam-vis, compounded of quam, 'as,' and vis, 'you wish,' means as you wish,' thus, quamvis excellās means literally excel as you wish (i. e., as much as you please). The Subjunctive with quamvis, ut, nē, and qui, is the Subjunctive of Desire; that with cum was developed from the temporal clause; see 521.

#### VI. Moods in Causal Clauses.

## RULE XLVII.-Moods with quod, quia, quoniam, quando.1

- 516. Causal clauses with quod, quia, quoniam, quando, generally take—
- I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively, on one's own authority:

Quoniam supplicătio decreta est, celebrătote illos dies, since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Cie. Gaudo quod spectant te, rejoice that (because) they behold you. Hor.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority:

Socrates accūsātus est, quod corrumperet juventūtem, Socrates was accused, because (on the alleged ground that) he corrupted the youth. Quint. Aristīdēs nonne expulsus est patriā, quod jūstus esset, was not Aristīdes banished because (on the alleged ground that) he was just? Cie.

1. By a special construction, the verb introducing a reason on another's authority is sometimes put in the Infinitive, depending upon a verb of *saying* or *thinking* in the Subjunctive:

Quod se bellum gestürös dicerent (= quod bellum gestüri essent, ut dicebant), because they were about, as they said, to wage war. Caes.

Note.—In the same way the Subjunctive of a verb of saying or thinking may be used in a relative clause to introduce the sentiment of another person:

Ementiondo quae so andisse dicerent, by reporting falsely what they had heard (what they said they had heard). Sall.

2. Non Quō etc.—Non quō, non quod, non quin, rarely non quia, also quam quod, etc., are used with the Subjunctive to denote an alleged reason in distinction from the true reason:

Non quo haberem quod scriberem, not because (that) I had anything to write. Cic. Non quod doleant, not because they are pained. Cic. Quia ne-

<sup>1</sup> Quod and quiu are in origin relative pronouns in the neuter. Thus:  $gaud\hat{e}$  quod spectant  $t\hat{e}$ , 'rejoice that (as to that) they behold you.' Quoniam = quom-jam, 'when now,' and  $quand\hat{o} = quam\cdot d\hat{o}$  ( $d\hat{o} = d\hat{i}\hat{e}$ ), 'on which day,' 'when.'  $D\hat{o}$  is probably from the same root as dum; see p. 145, foot-note 1.

<sup>2</sup> Observe that causal clauses with the Indicative state a fact, and at the same time present that fact as a reason or cause, as in the first example, but that causal clauses with the Subjunctive simply assign a reason without asserting any fact. Thus, in the examples under IL, quod corramperet jurentiatem does not state that Socrates corrapted the youth, but simply indicates the charge made against him; nor does quod yintus esset state that Aristides was just, but simply indicates the alleged ground of his banishment. For the development of the Subjunctive in causal clauses, see p. 267, foot-note 8.

quiverat quam quod ignoraret, because he had been unable, rather than because he did not know. Liv.

Note,—Clauses with quod sometimes stand at the beginning of sentences to announce the subject of remark :

Quod me Agamemnonem aemulārī putās, falleris, in thinking (as to the fact that you think) that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken. Nep.

## RULE XLVIII.—Causal Clauses with cum and qui.

517. Causal clauses with cum and  $qu\bar{\iota}$  generally take the Subjunctive, in writers of the best period:

Necesse est, cum sint dii, animantes esse, since there are gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings. Cic. Cum vîta metûs plêna sit, since life is full of fear. Cic. Quae cum ita sint, perge, since these things are so, proceed. Cic. Ō vīs vēritātis, quae (cum ca) sē dēfendat, O the force of truth, since it defends itself. Cic. Ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, quī (cum tā) tuae virtūtis Homērum praeconem invēueris, O fortunate youth, since you (lit., who) have obtained Homer as the herald of your valor. Cic.

1. In early Latin, especially in Plautus and Terenee, the Indicative is the prevailing mood in causal clauses with cum and qui, though the Subjunctive is not uncommon with qui:

Quom² facere officium seīs tuum, since you know how to do your duty. Plaut. Quom hōe nōn possum, since I have not this power. Ter. Quī advenīstī, since you have come. Plaut. Tuās quī virtūtēs sciam, since I know your virtues. Plaut. Quī nēminem videam, since I see no one. Ter.

2. Clauses with either cum or  $qu\bar{i}$  admit the Indicative in all writers, when the statement is viewed as a fact:

llabeō senectūtī grātiam, quae mihī sermōnis aviditātem auxit, I cherish gratitude to old age, which has increased my love of conversation. Cic. Grātu-

Clauses with cum, whether causal or temporal, illustrate the gradual extension of the use of the Subjunctive in subordinate clauses. Originally they took the Indicative, unless the thought irrespective of the causal or temporal character of the clause required the Subjunctive. Thus the Ciceronian sentence, Neccesse est, cum sint div, animantes esse, 'since there are gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings,' would in early Latin have been, Necesse est, cum sunt dii, animant's esse, and would have contained two distinct statements, viz., there are gods, and it is necessary that there should heliring beings. But in time the causal clause lost so much of its original force as a separate statement, and became so entirely dependent upon the principal clause, as to be little more than an adverbial modifier of the latter, like the Ablative of Cause (413) in a simple sentence. The causal clause then took the Subjunctive, and the sentence as a whole made but one distinct statement, which may be approximately rendered, in riew of (because of) the existence of the gods, it is necessary that there should be tiving beings. In the same way, temporal clauses with cum sometimes became little more than adverbial modifiers of the principal verb; see 521, II., 1, with foot-note, and 521, II., 2, with foot-note. For a special treatment of these clauses, see Hoffmann. 'Die Con struction der lateinischen Zeitpartikeln,' and Lübbert, 'Die Syntax von Quom.' <sup>2</sup> See 311, 1, with foot-note 4.

lor tibi, cum tantum vales, I compratulate you that (in view of the fact that) you have so great influence. Cic.

3. When a conjunction accompanies the relative, the mood varies with the conjunction. Thus—

1) The Subjunctive is generally used with cum, quippe, ut, utpote:

Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. Quippe qui blandiatur, since he flatters (as one who flatters). Cic. Ut qui coloni essent, since they were colonists. Cic.

Note.—But the Indicative is sometimes used to give prominence to the fact. In Sallust the Indicative is the regular construction after quippe:

Quippe qui regnum invaserat, as he had laid hold of the kingdom. Sall,

2) The Indicative is generally used with quia, quoniam:

Quae quia certa esse non possunt, since these things can not be sure. Cic. Qui quoniam intellegi noluit, since he did not wish to be understood. Cic.

### VII. Moods in Temporal Clauses.1

## RULE XLIX .- Temporal Clauses with postquam, etc.

518. In temporal clauses with postquam, posteāquam, ubī, ut, simul atque, etc., 'after,' 'when,' 'as soon as,' the Indicative is used:

Postquam vīdit, etc., castra posuit, he pitched his eamp, after he saw, etc. Caes. Ubi certiōrēs factī sunt, when they were informed. Caes. Id ut audīvit, as he heard this. Nep. Postquam vident, after they saw.<sup>3</sup> Sall. Postquam nox aderat, when night was at hand. Sall.

NOTE 1.—The tense in these clauses is generally the Perfect or the Historical Present, but sometimes the Descriptive Imperfect; 4 see examples above; also 471, 4.

Note 2,-The Pluperfect Indicative is sometimes used-

1) Especially to denote the result of a completed action:

Posteāquam consul fuerat, after he had been consul.º Cic. Anno tertio postquam profagerat, in the third year after he had fled. Nep.

2) To denote repeated action : 6

Ut quisque vénerat, solébat, etc., as each one came (lit., had come), he was wont, etc. Cic.

Note 3.—Postridie quam is used like postquam:

Postridie quam tu es profectus, on the day after you started. Cie.

1. In Livy and the late historians, the Pluperfect or Imperfect Subjunctive is often used to denote repeated action: 6

¹ On Temporal Chauses, see Hoffmann, 'Die Construction der lateinischen Zeitpartikeln,' and Lübbert, 'Die Syntax von Quom.'

<sup>2</sup> Or post quam and posted quam,

<sup>3</sup> See 467, III., with 1.

<sup>4</sup> See 469, I.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> And was accordingly at the time a man of consular rank.

<sup>6</sup> In this case the Imperfect Indicative is generally used in the principal clause, as in the example here given.

Id ubi dixisset, hastam mittebat, whenever he had said that, he hurled (was wont to hurl) a spear. Liv.

Note.—As a  $rare\ exception$ , the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive occur after postquam or posteaquam:1

Posteaquam aedificasset classes, after he had built fleets. Cic.

2. When the verb is in the second person singular to denote an indefinite subject, you = any one, one, the Subjunctive is generally used in temporal clauses:

Nolunt ubǐ velīs, ubǐ nolīs cupiunt, they are unwilling when you wish it (when one wishes it), when you are unwilling they desire it. Ter. Priusquam incipiās, consulto opus est, before you begin, there is need of deliberation. Sall.

### RULE L.-Temporal Clauses with dum, etc.2

519. I. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of while, as long as, take the *Indicative*:

Haec fēcī, dum licuit, *I did this while it was allowed*. Cic. Quoad vīxit, as long as he lived. Nep. Dum lēgēs vigēbant, as long as the laws were in jorce. Cic. Dōnec eris fēlīx, as long as you shall be prosperous. Ov. Quamdiū in prōvinciā fuērunt, as long as they were in the province. Cic.

- II. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of until, take—
- 1. The *Indicative*, when the action is viewed as an ACTUAL FACT:

Dēlīberā hŏc, dum ego redeō, consider this until I return. Ter. Dōnec rediit, until he returned. Liv. Quoad renūntiātum est, until it was (actually) announced. Nep.

2. The *Subjunctive*, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Differant, dum defervescat îra, let them defer it till their anger cools (i. e., that it may cool). Cic. Exspectas dum dicat, you are waiting till he speaks (i. e., that he may speak). Cic. Ea continebis quoad te videam, you will keep them till I see you. Cic.

Note 1.—In the poets and the historians, dum is sometimes used with the Imperfect Subjunctive, and  $d\bar{o}nec$  with the Imperfect and Pluperfeet, like cum in narration: <sup>3</sup>

Dum ea gererentur, bellum concitur, while these things were in progress (were done), a war was commenced. Liv. Nihil trepidābant donec ponte agerentur, they did not fear at all while they were driven on the bridge. Liv. Donec missī essent, until they had been sent. Liv.

Note 2.-Donec, in Tacitus, generally takes the Subjunctive:

But the text in these cases is somewhat uncertain.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See p. 291, foot-note 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> See p. 295, foot-note 1.

Rhenus servat violentiam cursus, donce Ōceano misceatur, the Rhine preserves the rapidity of its current till it mingles with the ocean. Tac.

### RULE LI.—Temporal Clauses with antequam and priusquam.

- 520. In temporal clauses with antequam and priusquam —
- I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put—
- 1. In the *Indicative*, when the action is viewed as an ACTUAL FACT:

Priusquam lücet, adsunt, they are present before it is light. Cic. Antequam in Siciliam vēnī, before I came into Sicily. Cic. Antequam cōgnō-verō, before I shall have ascertained. Cic. Nec prius respēxī quam vēnīmus, nor did I look back until we arrived. Verg.

2. In the *Subjunctive*, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Antequam de re publica deam, exponam consilium, I will set forth my plan before I (can) speak of the republic (i. e., preparatory to speaking of the republic). Cie. Non prius duces dimittunt, quam i sit concessum, they did not dismiss the leaders till it was granted. Caes. Prinsquam incipias, consulto opus est, before you begin there is need of deliberation (i. e., as preparatory to beginning). Sall. Tempestas minatur, antequam surgat, the tempest threatens, before it rises. Sen. Collem, priusquam sentiatur, communit, he fortified the hill before it was (could be) perceived. Caes.

## II. The Imperfect and the Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Often written ante quam and prius quam, sometimes with intervening words between ante or prius and quam. See also p. 291, foot-note 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Future is used only in early Latin, as in Plautus and Cato.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Remember that the Future is supplied in the Subjunctive by the Present; see 496.

<sup>4</sup> Here the temporal clause involves purpose as well as time. Antequam dicum is nearly equivalent to ut posteā dicum; 'I will set forth my views, that I may afterward speak of the republic.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Remember also that in temporal clauses the second person singular with an indefinite subject, you = any one, one, is generally in the Subjunctive; see 518, 2.

<sup>6</sup> Potential Subjunctive; see 486, 111.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect tenses is not always to be referred to the same principle. Sometimes, like the Subjunctive after dum, it is best explained as the Subjunctive of Purpose, as in the first example, and sometimes like the Subjunctive of the historical tenses after cum; see p. 295, foot-note 1.

Non prius egressus est quam rex eum in fidem reciperet, he did not withdraw until the king took him under his protection. Nep. Priusquam peteret consulatum, insanit, he was insane before he sought the consulship. Liv. Prius visus est Caesar, quam fama perferretur, Caesar appeared before any tidings were brought. Caes. Antequam urbem caperent, before they took the city. Liv. Priusquam de meo adventu audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perrexi, before they were a'hle to hear of my approach, I went into Macedonia. Cic. Paucis ante diebus, quam Syracusae caperentur, a few days before Syracuse was taken. Liv.

NOTE 1.—When the principal clause is negative and contains an historical tense, the temporal clause generally takes the Perfect Indicative, as in the last example under I., 1; but it sometimes takes the Subjunctive, as in the first example under II.

Note 2 - Pridie quam takes the same moods as priusquam :

Pridië quam scripsi, the day before I wrote. Cic. Pridië quam periret, somniavit, he had a dream on the day before he died. Suct.

Note 3.—For the Subjunctive of the second person with an indefinite subject, see 518, 2.

## RULE LII.-Temporal Clauses with cum.

521. In temporal clauses with cum '-

I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put in the *Indicative*:

Cum verba faciunt, mājōrēs suōs extollunt, when they speak, they extol their aneestors. Sall. Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent they approve. Cic. Librōs, cum est ōtium, legere soleō, when there is teisure, I am wont to read books. Cic. Ad tē scrībam, cum plūs ōtiī nactus erō, I shall write to you when I shall have obtained more leisure. Cic. Omnia sunt incerta cum ā jūre discēssum est, all things are uncertain when one has departed from the right. 2 Cic.

- II. The Imperfect and the Pluperfect are put—
- 1. In the *Indicative*, when the temporal clause asserts an historical fact:

Păruit cum necesse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary. 3 Cic. Nondum profectus erat, cum hace gerēbantur, he had not yet started when these things took place. Liv. Tum cum rēs māgnās permultī āmīserant, Rōmae fidēs concidit, then, when many had lost great fortunes, credit fell at Rome. Cic. Cum quaepiam cohors impetum fēcerat, hostēs refugiēbant, whenever any cohort made (had made) an attack, the enemy retreated. Caes.

- See p. 290, foot-note 1, with the works of Hoffmann and Lübbert there mentioned.
  Discussion est is an Impersonal Passive, a departure has been made; see 301, 1.
- <sup>3</sup> Here the temporal clause not only defines the *time* of *paruit*, but also makes a distinct and separate statement, viz., it was necessary; see p. 295, foot-note 1; also, p. 290, foot-note 1.

# 2. In the *Subjunctive*, when the temporal clause simply defines the time of the principal action:

Cum epistulam complicarem, tabellarii vēnērunt, while I was folding the letter (i. e., during the act), the postmen came.\(^1\) Cie. Cum ex Aegyptō reverterētur, dēcēssit, he died while he was returning (during his return) from Egypt. Nep. Cum dīmicāret, occīsus est, when he engaged in battle, he was slam. Nep. Zēnōnem, cum Athēnīs essem, audiēbam frequenter, I often heard Zeno when I was at Athens. Cie. Cum triduī viam perfēcisset, nūntiātum est, etc., when he had accomplished a journey of three days, it was announced, etc. Caes. Caesarī cum id nūntiātum esset, matūrat ab urbe proficiseī, when this was (had been) announced to Caesar, he hastened to set out from the city. Caes.

- I) Cam with the force of a relative after tempus, aetās, and the like, takes-
- (1) Sometimes the Indicative, to state a fact:

Fuit tempus, cum homines vagăbautur, there was a time when men led a wandering life. Cic.

Note. - Cum is sometimes thus used without tempus, etc. :

Fuit cum hoc dici poterat, there was a time when this could be said. Liv.

(2) Generally the Subjunctive, to characterize the period; 2

Id sacculum cum plena Graecia poétărum esset, that age when (such that) Greece was full of poets. Cic. Erit tempus, cum désiderés, the time will come, when you will desire. Cic.

Note 1.—Cum is sometimes thus used without tempus, etc.:

Fuit cum arbitrarer, there was a time when I thought. Cic.

Note 2 — Memini cum, 'I remember when,' generally takes the Indicative, but audio cum, video cum, and animadverto cum, generally the Subjunctive:

Memini cum mihi desipere videbare, I remember when you seemed to me to be unwise. Cic. Audivi cum diceret, I heard him say (lit., when he said). Cic.

- 2) Cam, meaning from the time when, since, takes the Indicative:
- Centum anni sunt, eum dictator fuit, it is one hundred yeurs since he was dictator. Cic.

Note 1.—Cum...tum, in the sense of 'not only ... but also,' 'both ... and,' generally takes the Indicative in both clauses, but in the sense of 'though ... yet,' the Subjunctive in the first clause and the Indicative in the second:

Cum antea distinctor, tum hoc tempore distincor, not only was I occupied before,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the Imperfect, and Pluperfect tenses the choice of mood often depends not so much upon the nature of the thought, as upon the intention and feeling of the writer at the moment. If he wishes to assert that the action of the temporal clause is an historical fact, he uses the Indicative; but if he introduces it for the sole purpose of defining the time of the principal action, he uses the Subjunctive. Thus, cam epistulam complication does not assert that I folded the letter, but, assuming that as admitted, it makes use of it in defining the time of renerant. See also foot-note under I above; also p. 290, foot-note 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Like the Subjunctive in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents; see 503, I.

but I am also occupied now. Cic. Quae cum sint gravia, tum illud acerbissimum est, though these things are severe, that is the most grievous. Cic.

Note 2.-For cum in Causal clauses, see 517.

Note 3.—For cum in Concessive clauses, see 515, III.

## VIII. Indirect Discourse—Ōrātiŏ Oblīqua.

Moods and Tenses in Indirect Discourse.

522. When a writer or speaker expresses thoughts, whether his own or those of another, in any other form than in the original words of the author, he is said to use the Indirect Discourse— $\bar{O}r\bar{a}$ -tiŏ Obliqua:

Platônem ferunt in Îtaliam vênisse, they say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Respondeo të dolôrem ferre moderate, I reply that you bear the affliction with moderation. Cic. Ütilem arbitror esse scientiam, I think that knowledge is useful. Cic.

- In distinction from the Indirect Discourse— Ōrātiō Oblīqua, the original words of the author are said to be in the Direct Discourse—Ōrātiō Rēda.
  - 2. Words quoted without change belong to the DIRECT DISCOURSE:

Rex 'duumviros' inquit 'secundum legem facio,' the king said, 'I appoint duumvirs according to law.' Liv.

## RULE LIII.-Moods in Principal Clauses.

- 523. The principal clauses of the Direct Discourse on becoming Indirect take the *Infinitive* or *Subjunctive* as follows:
- I. When Declarative, they take the *Infinitive with a Subject Accusative*.

Die bat animos esse divinos, he was wont to say that souls are divine. Cic. Platonem Tarentum venisse reperio, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic. Cato mirari se aiebat, Cato was wont to say that he wondered. Cic. Hippias gloriatus est, annulum se sua mana confecisse, Hippias bousted that he had made the ring with his own hand. Cic.

Note.—The verb on which the Infinitive depends is often omitted, or only implied in some preceding verb or expression; especially after the Subjunctive of Purpose:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Thus, in the first example, Platônem in Haliam vênisse is in the indirect discourse; in the direct, i. e., in the original words of those who made the statement, it would be: Platô in Haliam vênit.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) animi sunt divini, (2) Platō Tarentum vēnit, (3) miror, and (4) annulum meā manū confēcī. Observe that the pronominal subjects implied in miror and confēcī are expressed with the Infinitive, as mirārī sē, sē confēcisse. But the subject is sometimes omitted when it can be readily supplied; see second example under H., 2, below.

Pythia praccepit ut Miltiadem imperatorem sumerent; incepta prospera futura, Pythia commanded that they should take Miltiades as their commander, (telling them) that their efforts would be successful. Nep.

## II. When Interrogative, they take—

## 1. Generally the Subjunctive:

Ad postulāta Caesaris respondit, quid sibǐ veliet, cūr venīret, to the demands of Caesar he replied, what did he wish, why did he come? Caes.

Note. - Deliberative questions retain the Subjunctive from the direct discourse:

In spem venerat se posse, etc.; cur fortunam periclitaretur, he hoped (had come into hope) that he was able, etc.; why should he try fortune? Caes.

# 2. Sometimes the *Infinitive with a Subject Accusative*, as in rhetorical questions:<sup>2</sup>

Docebant rem esse testimonio, etc.; quid esse levius, etc., they showed that the fact was a proof (for a proof), etc.; what was more inconsiderate, etc.? Caes. Respondit, num memoriam deponere posse, he replied, could he lay aside the recollection? Caes.

## III. When Imperative, they take the Subjunctive:

Scrībit Labiēnō cum legione veniat, he writes to Labienus to come (that he should come) with a legion. Caes. Redditur responsum, castrīs sē tenērent, the reply was returned that they should keep themselves in camp. Liv. Mīlitēs certiorēs facit, sē reficerent, he directed the soldiers to refresh themselves. Caes. Ōrābant ut sibǐ auxilium ferret, they prayed that he would bring them help. Caes. Nūntius vēnit, nē dubitāret, a message came that he should not hesitate. Nep. Cohortātus est, nē pertūrbārentur, he exhorted them not to be alarmed. Caes.

Note.—An affirmative command takes the Subjunctive without ut, except after verbs of wishing and asking, but a negative command takes the Subjunctive with  $n\tilde{e}$ ; see examples,

In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) quid tibi vist cur reals? and (2) cur perieliter?

<sup>2</sup> A question used for rhetorical effect in place of an assertion is called a Rhetorical Question, as  $num\ potest$ , 'can he?' =  $nin\ potest$ , 'he can not';  $quid\ est\ turpius$ , 'what is baser?' =  $nihil\ est\ turpius$ , 'nothing is baser.' Here belong many questions which in the direct form have the verb in the first or in the third person. As such questions are equivalent to declarative sentences, they take the same construction, the Infinitive with its subject.

3 Direct discourse—(1) quid est levius = nihil est levius, and (2) num memoriam dépônere possum = memoriam dépônere non possum.

4 Imperative sentences include those sentences which take the Subjunctive of Desire; see 484.

In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) cum legione reni, (2) castrix cos tenéte, (3) vos reficite, (4) nobis auxilium fer, (5) noli dubitare, and (6) no perturbati vitis.

#### RULE LIV.-Moods in Subordinate Clauses.

524. The subordinate clauses of the Direct Discourse on becoming Indirect take the Subjunctive:

Respondit sẽ id quod in Nerviis fēcisset factūrūm, he replied that he would do what he had done in the case of the Nervii. Caes. Hippiās glōriātus est, annulum quem habēret sē suā manū cōnfēcisse, Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hand the ring which he wore. Cic.

1. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is sometimes used. Thus-

 In clauses introduced by the relative pronoun, or by relative adverbs, ubi, unde, quārē, etc., when they have the force of principal clauses (453):

Ad cum defertur, esse civem Römänum qui quereretur, quem (= et eum) asservatum esse, it was reported to him that there was a Roman citizen who made a complaint, and that he had been placed under quard. Cic. Te suspicor elsdem, quibus me ipsum, commoveri, I suspect that you are moved by the same things as I. Cic.

2) In clauses introduced by cum, quam, quamquam, quia, and some other

conjunctions, especially in Livy and Tacitus:

Num putātis, dixisse Antōnium minācius quam factūrum fuisse, do you think Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cic. Dīcit, sē mocnibus inclūsos tenēre cos, quia per agrōs vagārī, he says that he keeps them shut up within the walls, because (otherwise) they would wander through the fields. Liv. See also 535, I., 5 and 6.

2. The Indicative is used-

1) In parenthetical and explanatory clauses introduced into the *Indirect Discourse* without strictly forming a part of it:

Referunt silvam esse, quae appellatur Bacenis, \*\* they report that there is a forest which is called Bacenis. Caes. Audio Gellium philosophos qui tune erant \*\* convocasse, I hear that Gellius called together the philosophers of that day (lit., who then were). Cic.

2) Sometimes in clauses not parenthetical, to give prominence to the fact stated, especially in relative and temporal clauses:

Certior factus est ex ea parte viei, quam Gallis concesserat, omnes discessisse, he was informed that all had withdrawn from that part of the village which he had assigned to the Gauls. Caes. Dieunt illum diem clarissimum fuisse cum domum reductus est a patribus, they say that the day when he was conducted home by the fathers was the most illustrious. Cic.

525. Tenses in the Indirect Discourse generally conform to the ordinary rules for the use of tenses in the Subjunctive and Infinitive; 4 but notice the following special points:

Direct, faciam id quod in Nervils feci.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Direct, annulum quem habeō meā manū confēcī.

<sup>3</sup> These clauses, quae appellutur Bacenis and qui tune erant, are not strictly parts of the general report, but explanations added by the narrator.

<sup>4</sup> See 490-496 and 537.

1. The Present and Perfect may be used even after an historical tense, to impart a more lively effect to the narrative:

Caesar respondit, si obsidés sibi dentur, sese pacem esse facturum, Caesar replied, that if hostages should be given him, he would make peace. Caes. Exitus fuit orationis, neque ullos vacare agros, qui dari possint, the close of the oration was, that there were (are) not any lands unoccupied which could (can) be given. Caes.

2. The Future Perfect in a subordinate clause of the direct discourse is changed in the indirect into the Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and into the Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense:

Agunt ut dimicent; ibi imperium fore, unde victoria fuerit, they arrange that they shall fight; that the sovereignty shall be on the side which shall win the victory (whence the victory may have been). Liv. Apparebat regnaturum qui vicisset, it was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.

Note.—For Tenses in Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse, see 527.

#### Pronouns and Persons in Indirect Discourse.

526. In passing from the DIRECT DISCOURSE to the INDIRECT, pronouns of the first and second persons are generally changed to pronouns of the third person, <sup>2</sup> and the first and second persons of verbs are generally changed to the third person:

Glóriatus est, annulum se sua manu confecisse, he boasted that he had made the ring with his own hand. Cie. Redditur responsum, castris se tenerent, the reply was returned that they should keep themselves in camp. Liv. Respondit, si obsides ab its sibi dentur, sese cum its pacem esse facturum, he replied that if hostages should be given to him by them, he would make peace with them. Caes.

#### Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse.

527. Conditional sentences, in passing from the DIRECT DISCOURSE to the INDIRECT, undergo the following changes:

<sup>1</sup> In the direct discourse—(1) ibi imperium evit, unde victoria fuevit, and (2) régnabit qui vicevit.

<sup>2</sup> Thus—(1) ego is changed to sui, sibi, etc., or to ipse; meus and noster to suus; (2) tù to is or ille, sometimes to sui, etc.; tuus and rester to suus or to the Genitive of is; and (3) hie and iste to ille. But the pronoun of the first person may of course be used in the indirect discourse in reference to the reporter or author, and the pronoun of the second person in reference to the person addressed; Adfirmāvi quidvis mê perpessûrum. I asserted that I would endure anything. Cie. Responded to dolorem ferre moderate, I reply that you bear the affliction with moderation. Cie.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Direct, annulum ego meā manū confici. Ego becomes si, and meā, suā.

<sup>4</sup> Direct, castris ves tenete. Vos becomes se, and tenete, tenerent.

b Direct, si obsidés à rôbis mili dabuntur, rôbiscum preem faciam. A rôbis becomes ab iis; mili becomes sibi; rôbiscum, cum iis; and the implied subject of faciam becomes sisi, the subject of esse facturum.

I. In the First Form, the *Indicative* is changed to the *Subjunctive* in the condition and to the *Infinitive* in the conclusion:

Respondit, sī quid Caesar sē velit, illum ad sē venīre oportīre, he replied, if Caesar wished anything of him, he ought to come to him. Caes.

Note.—In all forms of conditiona' sentences the conclusion, when *imperative*, and generally when *interrogative*, takes the *Subjunctive* according to **523**:

Respondërunt, si uon aequum existimaret, etc., cūr postulāret, ² etc., they replied, ij' he did not think it fuir, etc., why did he demand, etc. Caes. Eum certiorem fectrunt. si suās rēs mantre vellet, Aleibiadem persequeretur, ³ they informed him that if he wished his institutions to be permanent, he should take measures against Alcibiales. Nep. Die quidnam factūrus fueris, sī cēnsor fuissēs, ⁴ say what you would hare done, if you had been censor. Liv.

II. In the Second Form, the *Present* or *Perfect Subjunctive* in the condition remains unchanged after a principal tense, but may be changed <sup>5</sup> to the *Imperfect* or *Pluperfect* after an historical tense, and in the conclusion it is changed to the *Future Infinitive*:

Respondit, sī stipendium remittātur, libenter sēsē recūsātūrum populī Rōmānī amīcitiam, he replied that if the tribute should be remitted, he would gladly renounce the friendship of the Roman people. Caes.

Note.-See note under I:

III. In the Third Form, the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive remains unchanged in the condition, regardless of the tense of the principal verb, but in the conclusion it is changed to the Periphrastic Infinitive in -rus fuisse, rarely to that in -rus esse:

Respondit, sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse, he replied that if he wanted anything of Caesar, he would have come to him. Caes. Clāmitābat, sī ille adesset, ventūrōs esse, he cried out that they would come if he were present. Caes.

Note 1.—In the conclusion, the periphrastic form  $futurum\ futsse\ ut$  with the Subjunctire is used in the Passive voice, and sometimes in the Active;

Nisi nuntii essent alläti, existimäbant futurum fuisse ut oppidum ämitteretur, they thought that the town would have been lost, if tidings had not been brought. Caes.

Note 2.—In conditional sentences with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the condition, and with an historical tense of the Indicative in the conclusion—

<sup>2</sup> Direct, sī nön aequum exīstimās, cūr postulās?

<sup>5</sup> But is often retained unchanged according to 525, 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Direct, si quid Caesar me rult, illum ad me renire oportet. For change of pronouns see 526, and for the tense of relit see 525. 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Direct, sī tuās rēs manēre rēs, Alcibiadem persequere. Notice change in the prononn and in the person of the verb; see 526.

Direct, quidnam fēcissēs (or factūrus fuīstī), sī cēnsor fuissēs.

O Direct, si stipendium remittatur, libenter recusem populi Romani amicitiam, or si stipendium remittatur, libenter recusabo populi Romani amicitiam. Observe that these two forms become identical in the indirect discourse.

<sup>7</sup> Direct—(1) sī quid mihǐ ā Caesare opus esset, ad eum rēnissem; (2) sī ille adesset, renīrent; and (3) nisi nūntī essent allātī, oppidum āmissum esset.

1) The Indicative is generally changed to the Perfect Infinitive:

Memento istam dignitatem to non potuisse consequi, nisi meis consiliis paruisses, 1 remember that you would not have been able to attain that dignity, if you had not followed my counsels. Cic.

2) The Indicative is changed to the Perfect Subjunctive if the context requires that mood;

Quis dubitat quin si Saguntinis tulissemus operam, aversuri bellum fuerimus, veho doubis that we should have averted the war, if we had carried aid to the Siguntines! Liv. Seimus quid, si vixisset, facturus fuerit, we know what he would have done, if he had lived. Liv.

#### Indirect Clauses.

## 528. The indirect discourse in its widest application includes—

1. Subordinate clauses containing statements made on the authority of any other person than the writer; see 516:

Omnës libros quos frater suus reliquisset mihi donavit, he gave to me all the books which his brother had left.<sup>2</sup> Cic.

2. Indirect questions; see 529, I.

Note.—A clause which involves a question without directly asking it is called an Indirect or Dependent Question:

Quaesivit salvusne esset clipeus, he asked whether his shield was safe.3 Cic.

 Many subordinate clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive; see 529, II.

#### RULE LV.-Moods in Indirect Clauses.

## **529.** The Subjunctive is used—

## I. In indirect questions:

Quaeritur, cūr dōctissimī hominēs dissentiant, it is a question, why the most learned men disagree. Cic. Quaesierās, nōnne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. Quālis sit animus, animus neseit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic. Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Quaeritur quid futūrum sit, what will be, is the question. Cic. Quaerit quīnam ēventus, sī foret bellātum, futūrus fuerit, he asks what would have been the result if war had been wayed. Liv. Dubitō nnm dēbeam, I doubt whether I ought. Plin. Incerta feror sī Jūppiter velit, I am rendered uncertain whether Jupiter wishes. Verg. Ut tē oblectēs seīre cupiō, I wish to know how you amuse yourself. Cic. Difficile

¹ Direct—(1) istam dignitātem cinsequī nin potuīstī, nisi meis cinsitiis pārulssēs; (2) sī Saguntīnis tulissēmus operam, bellum āversūrī fuimus; (3) quid, sī vixisset, factūrus fuit!

<sup>2</sup> That is, which he said his brother had left.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Here no question is directly asked. We have simply the statement, 'be asked whether his shield was safe,' but this statement involves the question, salcusne est clipeus, 'is my shield safe?'

dictū est utrum timuerint an dīlēxerint, it is difficult to say whether they feared or loved. Cic.

## II. Often in clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon another Subjunctive:

Nihil indīguius est quam eum quī culpā careat suppliciō nōn carēre, nothing is more shameful than that he who is free from fault should not be exempt from punishment. Cic. Utrum difficilius esset negāre tibǐ an efficere id quod royārēs diū dubitāvī, whether it would be more difficult to refuse your request or to do that which you ask, I have long doubted. Cic. Recordātione nostrae amīcitiae sīc fruor ut beātē vīxisse videar quia cum Scīpione vīxerim, I so enjoy the recollection of our friendship that I seem to have lived happily because I have lived with Scipio. Cic. Naevium rogat ut cūret quod dixisset, he asked Naevius to attend to that which he had mentioned. Cic. Vereor nē, dum minuere velim laborem, augeam, I fear that, while I wish to diminish the labor, I shall increase it. Cic.

Note 1.—In clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive, observe-

1) That the Subjunctive is used when the clauses are essential to the general thought of the sentence, as in the examples just given.

2) That the Indicative is used when the clauses are in a measure parenthetical, and when they give special prominence to the fact stated:

Milités mīsit, ut eōs qui fūgerant persequerentur, he sent soldiers to pursue those who had fled (i. e., the fugitives). Caes. Tanta vis probitūtis est, ut eam, vel in iīs quōs nūnquam vidimus, dūigāmus, such is the force of integrity that we love it even in those whom we have never seen. Cic.

Note 2.—In clauses introduced by dum, the Indicative is very common, especially in the poets and historians:

Fuere qui, dum dubitat Scaevinus, hortarentur Pisōnem, there were those who exhorted Piso, while Scaevinus hesitated. Tac. See also 467, 4.

1. Indirect or dependent questions, like those not dependent (351, 1), are introduced by interrogative pronouns or other interrogative words, as quis, qui, quālis, etc.; quid, cūr, nē, nōnne, num; rarely by sī, 'whether,' and ut, 'how'; see examples above.

Note 1.—Si is sometimes best rendered to see whether, to see if, to try if, etc.,

Te adeunt, si quid velis. they come to you to see whether you wish anything. Cic.

Note 2.—In the poets \$\tilde{s}\$ is sometimes similarly used with the Indicative:

Înspice si possum dönâta reponere, examine me to see whether I am able to restore your gifts. Hor.

Note 3.—In indirect questions num does not necessarily imply negation.

Note 4.—An indirect question may readily be changed to a direct or independent question.

2. An Accusative, referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the question, is sometimes, especially in poetry, inserted after the principal verb:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Thus the direct question involved in the first example is, cūr dēctissimī hominēs dissentiunt, 'why do the most learned men disagree?' In the second, nēnne putās, 'do you not think?'

Ego illum nesció qui fuerit, I do not know (him) who he was. Ter. Die hominem qui sit, tell who the man is. Plaut.

- 3. Indirect double questions are generally introduced by the same interrogative particles as those which are direct (353). Thus—
- 1) They generally take *utrum* or -ne in the first member and an in the second:

Quaeritur virtūs suamne propter dīgnitātem an propter frūctūs aliquōs expetātur, it is asked whether virtue is sought for its own worth, or for certain advantages. Cie.

2) But they sometimes omit the particle in the first member, and take in the second an or -ne in the sense of or, and neene or an non in the sense of or not:

Quaeritur nătură an duetrină possit effici virtus, it is asked whether virtue can be secured by nature, or by education. Cie. Sapientia beătos efficiat neces quaestio est, whether or not wisdom makes men happy is a question. Çic.

Note 1.—Other forms, as -ne . . . -ne, an . . . an, are rare or poetic:

Qui teneant, hominosne feraene, quaerere, to ascertain who inhabit them. cl. ther men or beasts. Very.

Note 2.—An, in the sense of *whether not*, implying an affirmative, is us diafter verbs and expressions of doubt and uncertainty: dubito an, nexto an, hand eco an, 'I doubt whether not,' 'I know not whether not' = 'I am inclined to think'; Inbium est an, invertum est an, 'it is uncertain whether not' = 'it is probable';

Dubito an Thrasybulum primum omnium ponam, I doubt whether I should not place Thrusybulus first of all (i. c., I am inclined to think I swald). Nep.

Note 3 .- An sometimes seems to have the force of aut.

Cum Simonidés, an quis alius,  $^1$  pollicérétur, when  $\mathcal E_{i}$  conides or some other one promised. Cic.

- 4. The Subjunctive is put in the periphras's form in the indirect question (1) when it represents a periphrastic for; in the direct question, and (2) generally, not always, when it represents a Inture Indicative; see the fifth and sixth examples under 529. I.
  - 5. Indirect Questions must be carefully dy tinguished-
- 1) From clauses introduced by relative pronouns or relative adverbs. These always have an antecedent or correlative expressed or understood, and are never, as a whole, the subject or object of a verb, while indirect questions are generally so used:

Dicam quod sentio (relative clause), I will ell that which (id quod) I think.<sup>2</sup> Cic. Dicam quid intellegam (indirect questson), I will tell what I know. Cic. Quaeramus ubi malcficium est. Let us seck there (ibi) where the crime is. Cic.

2) From direct questions and exclamations:

Some critics treat an quis ulius as a direct question inserted parenthetically: or scas it some other one?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In the first and third examples, quod sentio and  $ub\bar{i}$ , . . . est are not questions, but relative clauses; id is understood as the antecedent of quod, and  $ib\bar{i}$  as the antecedent or correlative of  $ub\bar{i}$ ; but in the second example, quid intellegam is an indirect question and the object of  $d\bar{i}cam$ : I will tell (what?) what I know (i. e., will answer that question).

Quid agendum est? nesció, what is to be done? I know not. Cic. Vide! quam conversa res est, see! how changed is the case. Cic.

3) From clauses introduced by nesciŏ quis = quīdam, o some one, nesciŏ quōmodo = quōdammodo, in some way, mīrum quantum, wonderfully much, wonderfully, etc. These take the Indicative:

Nescio quid animus praesagit, the mind forebodes, I know not what. Ter. Id mīrum quantum profuit, this profited, it is wonderful how much (i. e., it wonderfully profited). Liv.

6. Personal Construction.—Instead of an impersonal verb with an indirect question as subject, the personal construction is sometimes used, as follows:

Perspiciuntur quam sint leves,4 it is seen how inconstant they are! Cie.

7. The Indicative in Indirect Questions is sometimes used in early Latin and in the poets, especially in Plautus and Terence:

Sī memorāre velim, quam fidēlī animo fuī, possum, if I should wish to mention how much fidelity I showed, I am able. Ter.

530. The directions already given for converting the DIRECT DISCOURSE, Õrātiõ Rēcta, into the INDIRECT, Õrātiŏ Oblīqua, are further illustrated in the following passage from Caesar:

#### DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Caesarem obsecrare coepit: 'Nē quid gravius in fratrem statueris; seio illa esse vēra, nee quisquam ex eō plūs quam ego doloris capit, proptereā quod eum ipse grātiā plārimum domī atque in rěliqua Gallia, ille minimum propter aduléscentiam poterat, per mê erēvit; quibus opibus āc nervīs non solum ad minuendam gratiam, sed paene ad perniciem meam ūtitur; ego tamen et amore fraterno et existimatione vulgi eommoveor. Quod sì quid ěī ā tē gravius acciderit, eum ipse hune locum amicitiae apud tē teneam, nēmo exīstimābit, non meā voluntāte factum; quā ex rē totius Galliae animī ā mē āvertentur.'

#### INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Caesarem obsecrare coepit, ne quid gravius iu fratrem statueret ; scire sè illa esse vēra, nee quemquam ex eō plūs quam sē dolôris capere, proptereā quod eum ipse grātiā plūrimum domī atque in rčliquā Galliā, ille minimum propter adulescentiam posset, per se crēvisset; quibus opibus āc nervīs non solum ad minuendam gratiam, sed paene ad perniciem suam ūterētur ; sēsē tamen et amore fraterno et existimătione vulgi commoveri. Quod sī quid čī ā Caesare gravius aecidisset, cum ipse eum locum amīcitiae apud eum teneret, neminem existimaturum, non suā voluntāte factum; quā ex rē futūrum utī totius Galliae animī ā sē āverterentur. Caes., B. G., I., 20.

<sup>1</sup> Quid agendum sit nescio, 'I know not what is to be done,' would be an indirect question.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See **191**, note.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Praesāgit does not depend upon nesciö, but is entirely independent. Nesciö quid animus praesāgiat would be an indirect question, and would mean, I know not what the mind forebodes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Lit., they are seen. Observe that this personal construction corresponds to the Active, perspeciant cos quam sint leves, 'they perceive (them) how inconstant they are.' See also eyo illum nescio qui fuerit, 529, 2.

Note -In this illustration observe the following points:

- 1) That the Indicative in the principal clauses of the direct discourse is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive in the indirect, and that the Subjunctive, statuer's, denoting incomplete action, is changed to the Imperfect Subjunctive after the historical tense, coepit.
- 2) That in the subordinate clauses the verbs denoting incomplete action are changed to the Imperfect Subjunctive, while those denoting completed action are changed to the Pluperfect Subjunctive.<sup>2</sup>
- That sciō becomes scire sō (i. e., that the subject of the Infinitive is generally expressed).
- 4) That the pronouns of the first person are changed to reflexives; and that those of the second person are changed to  $is.^3$
- 531. The process by which the Indirect Discourse, *Ōrātio Oblīqua*, is changed to the Direct, *Ōrātiō Rēcta*, is illustrated in the following passages from Caesar:

#### INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Respondit, trānsisse Rhēnum sēsē non suā sponte, sed rogātum et arcessitum ā Gallis. Sē prius in Galliam vēnisse quam populum Rōmānum. Quid sibi vellet? Cūr in suās possessiones venīret? Caes., B. G., 1., 44.

Ita respondit, eð sibi minus dubitātiðnis darī quod eðs res quās lēgātī Helvētlī commemorāssent memoriā tenèret. Quod si veteris contumēliac oblivisei vellet, num etiam recentium injūriārum memoriam dēpōnere pōsse? Cum eð ita sint, tamen, si obsidēs ab tīs sibī dentur, sese eum tīs pācem esse factūrum. Caes., B. G., I., 14.

#### DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Respondit: 'Trānstī Rhēnum non meā sponte, sed rog,llus et arcessītus ā Gallis. Ego prius in Galliam vēnī quam nopulus Romānus. Quid tibā vīs? Cūr it. meās possessionēs venīš?'

lta respondit: 'Eō mihi minus dubitātionis datur quod eās rēs quās võs, lēgāti Helvētii, commemorāvistis, memoriā tēnēō. Quod šī veteris contumēliae obliviseī volō, num etiam recentium injūriārum memoriam dēponere possum? Cum haec ita sint, tamen, sī obsidēs ā vōhis mihi dabuntur, vōhiseum pācem faciam.'

Note .- In these illustrations observe the following points:

- 1) That in the principal clauses (1) the Infinitives with se or seese, expressed or understood, are changed to the first person of the Indicative; 4 (2) other Infinitives are also changed to the Indicative, but the person is determined by the context; 5 and (3)
- <sup>1</sup> Thus seiő becomes seire; capit, capere; commoveor, commoviri; existimábit, existimátarum (esse); and åvertentur, futúrum uti äverterentur. This last form, futurum uti äverterentur, is the Periphrastic Future Infinitive Passive; see 537, 3.
- <sup>2</sup> Thus poterat becomes pôsset; útitur, úteretur; teneam, tenêret; but crêvit becomes crêcisset; accident, accidisset.
- Thus (1) eyo is changed to  $s\tilde{e}$ ;  $m\tilde{e}$  to  $s\tilde{e}$ ; meam to suam;  $me\tilde{a}$  to  $su\tilde{a}$ ; and (2) to eum; hanc to eum.
- 4 Thus transinse seed is changed to transit; se veniuse to ego veni; see esse factum to faciam; passe, with se understood, to possum.
- 5 Thus minus dan't becomes minus datur; but if the subject of the Infinitive is of the second person, the Indicative will also be of that person. Responde & dolvrem ferra moder at thus becomes responde a, 'dolorem moder at fers;' see p. 299, footacte 2.

Subjunctives are changed to the Indicative after interrogative words, and to the Imperative in other situations.

2) That in the subordinate clauses the Subjunctive, unless required by the thought irrespective of the indirect discourse, is changed to the Indicative.<sup>3</sup>

3) That the reflexive pronouns suī, sibī, etc., and suus are changed (1) generally to pronouns of the first person, but (2) sometimes to those of the second person.<sup>4</sup>

4) That is and ille are (1) generally changed to  $t\bar{v}$  or  $h\bar{v}c$ , but (2) sometimes retained.<sup>5</sup>

5) That a noun referring to the person or persons addressed may be put in the Vocative preceded by  $t\bar{u}$  or  $v\bar{v}s$ .

#### SECTION VII.

#### INFINITIVE .- SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

## I. Infinitive.

532. The Infinitive is a verbal noun with special characteristics. Like verbs, it has voice and tense, takes adverbial modifiers, and governs oblique cases.

#### RULE LVI.-Infinitive.

533. Many verbs admit an Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning:

Audeo dicere, I darc say (I venture to say). Cic. Haec vitore cupimus, we desire to avoid these things. Cic. Constituit non progredi, he decided

¹ Thus quid vellet is changed to quid vist cur reniret to cur reniret. Vellet and veniret are in the Imperfect simply because dependent upon an historical tense, and are therefore changed to the Present in the direct discourse. In deliberative questions (484, V.) the Subjunctive is retained in the direct discourse.

<sup>2</sup> Thus cum legione reniat, under 523, 111. becomes cum legione reni. The Subjunctive may of course be retained in the direct discourse whenever the thought requires that mood.

<sup>3</sup> Thus commemorāssent, pluperfect after an historical tense, is changed to commemorāsistis; tenèret to teneō; rellet to rolŏ; dentur to dabuntur. Sint is retained unchanged because required in a causal clause with cum; see 517.

4 Thus (1) trānsīsse sēsē is changed to trānsīī, with subject implied in the ending; suā to meā; sē rēnīsse to ego vēnī, with emphatic subject; suās to meās; sībī to mihī; sēsē esse factūrum to fucium; (2) sibī to tibī, in quid sibī vellet. As the subject of an Infinitive (536), sē or sēsē often corresponds to the pronominal subject implied in the ending of a finite verb; see p. 187, foot-note 5.

5 Thus (1) ab iis is changed to ā vöbīs; cum iis to vöbīscum; ea ita sint to haec ita sint; (2) eās vēs is retained.

6 Thus lēgātī Helvētiī, the subject of commemorāssent, is changed to vos, lēgātī Helvētiī

Originally the Latin Infinitive appears to have been the Dative case of an abstract verbal noun, and to have been used to denote the purpose or end (384, 1, 3) for which anything is or is done. Being thus only loosely connected with the verb of the sentence, it readily lost its special force as a case and soon began to be employed with considerable freedom in a variety of constructions. In this respect the history of the Infinitive resem-

not to advance Caes. Crēdulī esse coepērunt, they began to be credulous. Cic. Vincere seīs, you know how to conquer (you know to conquer) Liv. Vīctōriā ūtī neseīs, you do not know how to use victory. Liv. Latīnē loquī uidicerat, he had learned to speak Latīn. Sall. Dēbēs hoe reserībere, you ought to write this in reply. Hor. Nēmo mortem effugere potest, no one is able to escape death. Cic. Solent cogitāre, they are accustomed to think. Cic.

- 1. The Infinitive is thus used-
- 1. With Transitive Verbs meaning to dare, desire, determine; to begin, continue, end; to know, learn; to owe, etc.; see examples above.

Note 1.—For the Subjunctive with some of these verbs, see 493, 1., note. Note 2.—See also 498, 11., note 1.

- 2. With Intransitive Veres meaning to be able; to be wont, be accustomed, etc.; see examples above.
- II. In special constructions the Infinitive has nearly the force of a Dative of Purpose or End—1

#### 1. With INTRANSITIVE VERBS:

Non populare penates venimus, we have not come to lay waste your homes. Verg. Conjuravere patriam incendere, they conspired to destroy their country with fire. Sall.

2. With Transitive Veres in connection with the Accusative:

Peeus i git altes visere montes, he drove his herd to visit the lofty mountains. Hor. Quid habes dievre, what have you to say? Cie. Dederat comam diffundere ventis, she had given her hair to the winds to scatter. Verg.<sup>2</sup>

#### 3. With Adjlictives:

Est paratus audire, he is prepared to hear (for hearing). Cie. Avidi committere pügnam, eager to engage (for engaging) in battle. Ovid. Fons rivo dare nomen idoneus, a fountain fit to give a name to the river. Hor.

Note 1.—This use of the Infinitive is mostly poetical.

Note 2.—With adjectives and with participles used as adjectives the Infinitive is rare in prose, but is freely used in poetry in a variety of constructions:

Cantare peritus, skilled in singing. Verg. Pélidés eèdere nescius, Pélides not knowing how to yield, Hor. Certa mori, determined to die. Verg. Dignus déscribi, worthy to be described. Hor. Vitulus niveus vidéri, a culf snow-white to view, Hor.

bles that of adverbs from the oblique eases of nouns. As such adverbs are often used with greater freedom than the cases which they represent, so the Latin Infinitive often appears in connections where, as a Dative, it would not have been at all admissible. Upon the Origin and History of the Indo-European Infinitive, see Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitives.'

- <sup>1</sup> In these constructions the Infinitive retains its original force and us.; see 532, foot-note.
- <sup>2</sup> In these examples with transitive verbs observe that the Accusative and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and Dative under 384, II., and that the Accusative Dative, and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and two Datives under 390, IL
  - Vireus videri, like the Greek Acurds ideadar.

Piger scribendi ferre laborem, reluctant to bear the labor of writing. Hor. Suum of ficium facere immemor est, he forgets (is forgetful) to do his duty. Plant.

Note 3.—The Infinitive also occurs, especially in poetry, with verbal nouns and with such expressions as tempus est, copia est, etc.:

Cupido Stygios innare lacus, a desire to sail upon the Stygian lakes. Verg. Quibus molliter vivere copia crat, who had the means for living at ease. Sall. Tempus est dicere, it is time to speak. Cic.

Note 4.—The Infinitive Is sometimes used with prepositions:

Multum interest inter dare et accipere, there is a great difference between giving and receiving. Sen.

#### RULE LVII.-Accusative and Infinitive.

## 534. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive:

Të sapere docet, he teaches you to be wise. Cic. Eōs suum adventum exspectāre jūssit, he ordered them to await his approach. Caes. Pontem jubet rescindī, he orders the bridge to be broken down. Caes. Tē tuā fruī virtūte cupimus, we wish you to enjoy your virtue. Cic. Sentīmus calēre ignem, we perceive that fire is hot (we perceive fire to be hot). Cic. Rēgem trādunt sē abdidisse, they relate that the king concealed himself. Liv.

Note. - In the compound forms of the Infinitive, esse is often omitted:

Andīvī solitum Fabricium, I have heard that Fabricius was wont. Cic. Spērāmus võbīs profutūros, we hope to benefit you. Cic.

 The corresponding Passive is sometimes personal and sometimes impersonal:<sup>9</sup>

Personal.—Aristidės jūstissimus fuisse trāditur, Aristides is said (is reported by tradition) to have been most just. Cie. Solem e mundo tollere videntur, they seem to remove the sun from the world. Cie. Platonem audivisse dicitur, he is said to have heard Plato. Cie. Diī beātī esse intelleguntur, the gods are understood to be happy. Cie.

IMPERSONAL.—Traditum est Homerum caecum fuisse, it has been reported

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Observe that in the first three examples the Accusatives  $t\tilde{\epsilon}$ ,  $e\tilde{\nu}s$ , and pontem, are the direct objects of the finite verbs, while in the other examples the Accusatives  $t\tilde{\epsilon}$ , ignem, and regem, may be explained either as the direct objects of the finite verbs, or as the subjects of the Infinitives. The former was doubtless the original construction, but in time the object of the principal verb came to be regarded in many cases as the subject of the Infinitive depending upon it. Thus was developed the Subject Accusative of the Infinitive.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> These two constructions correspond to the two interpretations of the Active mentioned in foot-note I above. Thus, in the sentence, Aristidem jūstissimum faisse trādunt, if Aristīdem is regarded as the object of trādunt, according to the original conception, the corresponding Passive will be personal: Aristīdes jūstissimus fuisse trādītur; but if Aristīdem is regarded as the subject of fuisse, and the clause Aristīdem jūstissimum fuisse as the object of trādunt, then the same clause will become the subject of the Passive, and the construction will be impersonal: Aristīdem jūstissimum fuisse trāditur, 'it is reported by tradītion that Aristīdes was most just.'

by tradition that Homer was blind. Cic. Unam partern Gallos obtinere dietum est, it has been stated that the Gauls occupy one part. Caes. Nuntiatur esse naves in porta, it is announced that the vessels are in port. Cic.

Note 1.—The Personat Construction is used—(1) regularly in jubeor, vetor, and rideor; (2) generally in the simple tenses of onest verbs of saying, thinking, and the like, as dicor, tridor, feror, nuntior, cridor, existimor, putor, perhibeor, etc.; (3) sometimes in other verbs; see examples above.

Note 2.—The Impersonal Construction is especially common in the compound tenses, though also used in the simple tenses; see examples above.

535. The Accusative and an Infinitive are used with a great variety of verbs. Thus—

### I. With verbs of Perceiving and Declaring:

Sentimus calere ignem, we perceive that fire is hot. Cie. Mihi narravit të sollicitum esse, he told me that you were troubled. Cie. Seripserunt Themistoclem in Asiam transisse, they wrote that Themistocles had gone over to Asia. Nep.

- 1. Verbs of Perceivino include those which involve (1) the exercise of the senses: audiō, videō, sentiō, etc., and (2) the exercise of the mind—think-ing, believing, knowing: cōgitō, putō, existimō, crēdō, spērō—intellegō, sciō, etc.
- 2. Verbs of Declaring are such as state or communicate facts or thoughts: dico, narro, wantio, doceo, ostendo, promitto, etc.
- 3. Expressions equivalent to verbs of perceiving and of declaring, as fāma fert, 'report says,' testis sum, 'I am a witness' = 'I testify,' conscius mihi sum, 'I am conscious,' 'I know,' also admit an Accusative with an Infinitive:

Nûllam mihî relâtam esse gr.tiam, tû es testis, you are a witness (can testify) that no grateful return has been made to me. Cic.

4. Participle for Infinitive.—Verbs of perceiving take the Accusative with the present participle, when the object is to be represented as actually seen, heard, etc., while engaged in a given action:

Catônem vidí in bibliothéeā sedentem, I saw Cato sitting in the library. Cie.

5. Scheets Compared.—When two subjects with the same predicate are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Infinitive may be understood in the second:

Platonem ferunt idem sensisse quod Pythagoram, they say that Plato held the same opinion as Pythagoras. Cic.

6. PREDICATES COMPARED.—When two predicates with the same subject are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Accusative may be understood in the second:

Num putatis, dixisse Antonium minacius quam facturum fuisse, do you think Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cie.

Note.—But the second clause may take the Subjunctive, with or without ut:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The learner will remember that the simple tenses are formed simply by inflexional endings, as dicitur, dicibātur, but that the compound tenses are formed by the union of the perfect participle with the verb sum, as dictum est, dictum erat, etc.

Audeo dicere ipsos potius cultores agrorum fore quam ut coli prohibeant, I dare say that they will themselves become tillers of the fields rather than prevent them from being tilled. Liv.

II. With verbs of Wishing, Desiring, Commanding, and their opposites:

Të tua frui virtute cupimus, we desire that you should enjoy your virtue. Cic. Pontem jubet rescindi, he orders the bridge to be broken down (that the bridge should be broken down). Caes. Lex eum necari vetuit, the law forbade that he should be put to death. Liv.

Note.—Several verbs involving a *wish* or *command* admit the Subjunctive, generally with ut or  $n\tilde{e}$ ; see 498, 1:

Optō ut id audiātis, I desire that you may hear this. Cic. Volō ut respondeās, I wish you would reply. Cic. Mālō tē hostis metuat. I prefer that the enemy should fear you. Cic. Concēdō ut hace apta sint, I admit that these things are suitable. Cic.

III. With verbs of Emotion and Feeling: 2

Gaudeō të mihi suadëre, I rejoice that you advise me. Cic. Mîrāmur të lactāri, we wonder that you rejoice. Cic.

Note.—Verbs of *emotion* and *feeling* often take clauses with *quod* (540. IV.) to give prominence to the *fact* stated, or to emphasize the *ground* or *reason* for the feeling:

Gaudeo quod të interpellavi, I rejoice that (or because) I have interrupted you. Cic. Dolebam quod socium amiseram, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Cic.

IV. Sometimes, especially in Poetry and in Late Prose, with verbs which usually take the Subjunctive:  $^3$ 

Gentem hortor amare focos, I exhort the race to love their homes. Verg. Cuncti suaserumt Italiam petere, all advised to seek Italy. Verg. Soror monet succedere Lauso Turnum, the sister warns Turnus to take the place of Lausus. Verg.

## RULE LVIII.—Subject of Infinitive.

536. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject:

Sentīmus calēre ignem, we perceive that fire is hot. Cic. Platōnem Tarentum vēnisse reperiō, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic.

¹ As cupio, opto, volo, noto, malo, etc.; patior, sino; impero, jubeo; prohibeo, reto, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> As gaudeō, doleō, miror, queror, etc.; also negrê ferō, graviter ferō, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Many verbs in Latin thus admit two or more different constructions; see in the dictionary adigo, conseo, concedo, cogō, constituō, contendō, cupiō, cūrō, dicernō, dico, doccō, ēlubōrō, rūtor, faciō, impedio, imperō, jubeō, labōrō, mālō, mandō, molior, moneō, niō, optō, ōrō, patior permittō, persuādeō, postulō, praccipiō, pracdīcō, prohibcō, sinō, statuō, studeō, suādeō, retō, rideō. See also Draeger, II., pp. 230-416.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Remember that the Infinitive, as a verbal noun, originally had no subject, but that subsequently in special constructions a subject Accusative was developed out of the object of the principal verb; see 534, foot-note 1. In classical Latin many Infinitives have no subjects, either expressed or understood.

1. HISTORICAL INFINITIVE.—In lively descriptions the Present Infinitive is sometimes used for the Imperfect or the Perfect Indicative. It is then called the Historical Infinitive, and, like a finite verb, has its subject in the Nominative:

Catilina in primă acie versări, omnia providere, multum ipse pugnare, sacpe hostem ferire, Catiline was busy in the front line; he attended to everything, fought much in person, and often smote down the enemy. Sall.

Note,—The Historical Infinitive sometimes denotes customary or repeated action:
Omnia in pêjes rucre ac vetrô referri, all Urings change rapidly for the worse and are borne backward. Vere.

2. A Predicate Noun or a Predicate Adjective after an Infinitive agrees with the noun or pronoun of which it is predicated, according to the general rule (362). It is thus—

1) In the Nominative, when predicated of the principal subject:

Noto esse laudator, I am unwilling to be a calogist. Cie. Beatus esse sine virtute nemo potest, no one can be happy without virtue. Cie. Parens diei potest, he can be callel a parent. Cie.

Note.—Participles in the compound tenses agree like predicate adjectives: Pollicitus esse dicitur, he is said to have promised. Cic.

2) In the Accusative, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Accusa-

Ego me Phidiam esse mallem, I should prefer to be Phidias. Cie. Traditum est, Ilomerum caecum fuisse, it has been handed down by tradition that Homer was blind. Cie.

3) In the Dative, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative:

Patricio tribuno plebis fieri non licebat, it was not lawful for a patrician to be made tribune of the people. Cic. Mihi neglegenti esse non licuit, it was not permitted me to be negligent. Cic.

Note.—A noun or adjective predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative is sometimes put in the Accusative:

Ei consulem fieri licet, it is lawful for him to be made consul. Caes.

537. The Tenses of the Infinitive—Present, Perfect, and Future—denote only relative time. They accordingly represent the time respectively as present, past, or future, relatively to that of the principal verb:

Present.—Cupió me esse elémentem, I desire to be mild. Cic. Mâluit se diligi quam metui, he preferred to be loved rather than feared. Nep.

Perfect.—Platônem ferunt in Îtaliam venisse, they say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Cônseius mihi eram, nihil â mê commissum esse, I was conscious to myself that no offence had been committed by me. Cic.

Future.-Brutum visum īrī ā mē puto, I think Brutus will be seen by me.

- 1 Historical Infinitives are generally used in groups, seldom singly.
- 2 Here Phidiam is predicated of mē (lit., me to be Phidias), and caecum of Homèrum.
  - 3 Tribūno is predicated of patricio, and neglegenti of mihi.

Cic. Ōraeulum datum erat vietrices Athēnas fore, an oracle had been given, that Athens would be victorious. Cic.

Note.—In general, the Present Infinitive represents the action as taking place at the time denoted by the principal verb, the Perfect as then completed or past, and the Future as then about to take place; but tense is so imperfectly developed in the Infinitive that even relative time is not marked with much exactness. Hence—

1) The Present is sometimes used of future actions, and sometimes with little or no reference to time:

Cras argentum dare dixit, he said that he would give the silver to-morrow. Ter.

2) The Perfect is sometimes used of present actions, though chiefly in the poets:

Tetigisse timent poëtam, they fear to touch (to have touched) the poet. Hor.

1. After the past tenses of debeō, oportet, possum, and the like, the Present Infinitive is used where our idiom would lead us to expect the Perfect; sometimes also after meminī, and the like; regularly in recalling what we have ourselves experienced:

Debuit officiosior esse, he ought to have been more attentive. Cic. Id potuit facere, he might have done this. Cic. Me Athenis audire memini, I remember to have heard (hearing) in Athens. Cic.

2. The Perfect Passive Infinitive sometimes denotes the result of the action. Thus, doctus esse may mean either to have been instructed or to be a learned man (lit., an instructed man). If the result thus denoted belongs to past time, furse must take the place of esse:

Populum alloquitur, sopitum fuisse regem ietu, she addresses the people, saying that the king was stunned by the blow. Liv. See also 471, 6, note 1.

3. Instead of the regular Future Infinitive, the Periphrastic Form, futūrum esse ut, or fore ut, with the Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect, is frequently used:

Spērō fore ut eontingat id nōbīs, I hope this will fall to our lot (I hope it will come to pass that this may happen to us). Cic. Nōn spērāverat llannibal, fore ut ad sē dēficerent, Hannibal had not hoped that they would revolt to him. Liv.

Note 1.—This circumlocution is common in the Passive, and is moreover necessary in both voices in all verbs which want the Supine and the participle in rus.

Note 2.—Sometimes fore ut with the Subjunctive, Perfect or Pluperfect, is used with the force of a Future Perfect; and in passive and deponent verbs, fore with the perfect participle may be used with the same force:

Dieo me satis adeptum fore, I say that I shall have obtained enough. Cie.

538. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, is often used as the subject of a verb:

With Subject.—Caesari nuntifium est equites accedere, it was announced to Caesar that the cavalry was approaching. Caes. Facinus est vineiri eivem Romanum, that a Roman citizen should be bound is a crime. Cic. Certum

<sup>1</sup> This use of the Infinitive as subject was readily developed out of its use as object; see 5.34, 1, foot-note. Thus the Infinitive, with or without a subject finally came to be regarded as an indectinable noun, and was accordingly used not only as subject and object, but also as predicate and appositive (5.39, 1, and 11.), and sometimes even in the Abbative Absolute (5.39, 1.V.), and in dependence upon prepositions (5.33, 3, note 4).

est liberës am'iri, it is certain that children are loved. Quint. Lègem brevem esse oportet, it is necessary that a law be brief. Sen.

Witnout Subject.—Decrétum est non dare signum, it was decided not to give the signal. Liv. Ars est difficilis rem públicam regere, to rule a state is a difficult art. Cic. Cărum esse jucundum est, it is pleasant to be held dear. Cic. Have seire juvat, to know these things affords pleasure. Sen. Peceăre licet nemini, to sin is lawful for no one. Cic.

- 1. When the subject is an Infinitive, the predicate is either (1) a noun or adjective with sum, or (2) a verb used impersonally; see the examples above.
- 2. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, may be the subject of another Infinitive:

Intellegi necesse est esse deos, it must be understood that there are gods. Cie.

3. The Infinitive sometimes takes a demonstrative as an attributive in agreement with it:

Quibusdam hoe displicet philosophari, this philosophizing (this to philosophize) displeases some persons. Cie. Vivere ipsum turpe est nobis, to live is itself ignoble for us. Cie.

539. Special Constructions.—The Infinitive with a subject <sup>2</sup> is sometimes used—

### I. As a Predicate; see 362:

Exitus fuit orationis sibi nullam cum his amicitiam esse,2 the close of his oration was that he had no friendship with these. Caes.

Note.—An Infinitive without a subject may be used as a Predicate Nominative: Vivere est côgitâre, to live is to think. Cic.

## II. As an Appositive; see 363:

Öraculum datum erat victrices Athènas fore, an oracle had been given, that Athens would be victorious. Cic. Illud soleo mirari, non me accipere tuis litteras, I am accustomed to wonder at this, that I do not receive your letter. Cic.

## III. In EXCLAMATIONS; see 381:

Të sie vexari, that you should be thus troubled! Cie. Mëne incepto dësistere victam, that I, vanquished, should abandon my undertaking! 4 Verg.

## IV. In the Ablative Absolute; see 431, note 1:

Audito Darium movisse pergit, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had withdrawn having been heard), he advanced. Curt.

<sup>1</sup> Esse dens is the subject of intellegi, and intellegi esse dens of est.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Including the modifiers of each. Thus in the example the whole clause, sibi nūllam cum hīs amīcitiam esse, is used as a Predicate Nominative in agreement with the subject exitus; see 362.

<sup>3</sup> In the examples, the clause rietrices Athenas fore is in apposition with \(\tilde{\rho}\)raculum, and the clause non m\(\tilde{\rho}\) accipere tu\(\tilde{\rho}\)s litter\(\tilde{\rho}\)s, in apposition with \(\tilde{\chi}\) tud.

<sup>4</sup> This use of the Infinitive conforms, it will be observed, to the use of the Accusative and Nominative in exclamations (381, with note 3).

### II SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

540. In Latin, clauses which are used as *substantives* take one of four forms. They may be—

## I. Indirect Questions:

Quaeritur, cur dissentiant, it sasked why they disagree. Cic. Quid agendum sit, nescio, I do not know i at ought to be done. Cic.

NOTE.-For the use of Indire. Questions, see 529, I.

#### II. INFINITIVE CLAUSES:

Antecellere contigit, it was his good fortune to excel (to excel happened). Cic. Magna negotia voluit agere, he wished to achieve great undertakings. Cic. Note.—For the use of Infinitive Clauses, see 534; 535.

III. SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES, generally introduced by ut, ne, etc.:

Contigit ut patriam vindicāret, it was his good fortune to save his country. Nep. Volŏ ut mihī respondeās, I wish you would answer me. Cic.

Note. - For the use of such Subjunctive Clauses, see 498; 499, 3; 501.

## IV. CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY quod:

Beneficium est quod necesse est morī, it is a blessing that it is necessary to die. Sen. Gaudeō quod tē interpellāvī, I rejoice that (because) I have interrupted you. Cic.

Note.—Quod-clauses, used substantively, either give prominence to the fact stated, or present it as a ground or reason. They are used as the subject of impersonal verbs, and as the object of many transitive verbs, especially of such as denote emotion or feeting:

Hūc accēdēbat quod exercitum luxuriosē habuerat, to this was added the fact that he had kept the army in luxury. Sall. Adde quod ingenuās didicisse artēs ēmolīt mūrēs. add the fact that to learn liberal arts refines manners. Ovid. Bene facis quod mē adjuvās, you do well that you assist me. Cic. Dolēbam quod socium āmīseram, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Cic. See also 535, III., note.

## SECTION VIII.

## GERUNDS, GERUNDIVES,2 SUPINES, AND PARTICIPLES.

## I. GERUNDS.

541. The Gerund is a verbal noun which shares so largely the character of a verb that it governs oblique cases, and takes adverbial modifiers:

¹ Quod-clauses occur—(1) as the subject of accidit, accidit, appūret, ēvenit, fit, novet, obest, occurrit, prōdest, etc.; also of est with a noun or adjective, as causa est, ritium est, etc.; ard (2) as dependent upon accūsō, addō, addcēō (p. 20, foot-note 1), admīror, animadvertō, angor. bene faciō, dilector, do'cō, excūsō, faciō, guudeō, glōrior, laetor, mīror, mittō, omittō, praetereō, queror, etc. They are sometimes used like the Accusative of Specification. See 516, 2, note.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Gerund and the Gerundize were originally identical The former is the neu-

Jūs vocandī i senātum, the right of summoning the senate. Liv. Beātē vivendī i cupidītās, the desire of living happily. Cic.

Note. - In a few instances the Gerund has apparently a passive meaning:

Neque habent propriam percipiendi notam, nor have they any proper mark of distinction (i. e., to distinguish them). Cic.

- 542. The Gerund has four cases—the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative—used in general like the same cases of nouns. Thus—
  - I. The GENITIVE OF THE GERUND is used with nouns and adjectives; 2

Ars vivendi, the art of living. Cie. Studiosus erat audiendi, he was desirous of hearing. Nep. Cupidus to audiendi, desirous of hearing you. Cic. Artem vera ae falsa dijudicandi, the art of distinguishing true things from false. Cie.

Note 1.—The Gerund usually governs the same case as the verb, but sometimes, by virtue of its *substantive nature*, it governs the *Genitive*, especially the Genitive of personal pronouns— $me\bar{\imath}$ ,  $nostr\bar{\imath}$ ,  $tu\bar{\imath}$ ,  $restr\bar{\imath}$ , sui:

Côpia plăcandi tui (of a woman), an opportunity of appeasing you. Ov. Sui cônservandi causă, for the purpose of prescring themselves. Cic. Vestri adhortandi causă, for the purpose of exhorting you. Liv. Reiciendi <sup>3</sup> jūdicum potestās, the power of challenging (of) the judges. Cic. Lūcis tuendi côpia, the privilege of beholding the light. Plaut.

Note 2.—The Genitive of the Gerund is sometimes used to denote purpose or tendency:

Lēgēs pellendi clāros viros, laws for (lit., of) driving away illustrious men. Tac.

II. The Dative of the Gerend is used with a few verbs and adjectives which regularly govern the Dative:

Cum solvendo non essent, since they were not able to pay. Cic. Aqua utilis est bibendo, water is useful for drinking. Pliu.

Note,—The Dative of the Gerund is rare; 4 with an object it occurs only in Plautus.

III. The Accusative of the Gerund is used after a few prepositions:5

Ad discendum propensi sumus, we are inclined to learn (to learning). Cic. Inter lüdendum, in or during play. Quint.

ter of a participle used \*ubstantivety, while the latter is that same participle used \*adjectivety. Moreover, from this participle the Gerund developed an active meaning and the Gerundive a passive. On the Origin and Use of Gerunds and Gerundives, see Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitivs,' pp. 198-200; Draeger, II., pp. 789-823.

1 Vocandi as a Genitive is governed by jūs, and yet it governs the Accusative senatum; rivendi is governed by cupiditās, and yet it takes the adverbial modifier beate.

<sup>2</sup> The adjectives which take the Genitive of the Gerund are chiefly those denoting desire, knowledge, skill, escallection, and their opposites; aridus, cupidus, studiosus; cinscius, gnārus, ignārus; peritus, imperitus, insuitus, etc.

<sup>3</sup> Pronounced as if written rejicienti; see p. 20, foot-note 1.

4 According to Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitivs,' p. 200, the Gerund originally had only one case, the Datire, and was virtually an Infinitive.

5 Most frequently after ad; sometimes after inter and ob; very rarely after ante, circa, and in.

Note 1.—The Accusative of the Gerund with a direct object is rare:

Ad placandum deos pertinet, it tends to appease the gods. Cic.

Note 2.—The Gerund with ad often denotes purpose:

Ad imitandum mihi propositum est exemplar illud, that model has been set before me for imitation. Cie.

IV. The Ablative of the Gerund is used (1) as Ablative of Means, and (2) with prepositions:

Mens discendo alitur, the mind is nourished by learning. Cic. Salûtem hominibus dando, by giving safety to men. Cic. Virtûtes cernuntur in agendo, virtues are seen in action. Cic. Deterrere a scribendo, to deter from writing. Cic.

Note 1.—After prepositions, the Ablative of the Gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare:

In tribuendo suum cuique, in giving every one his own. Cic.

Note 2.—Without a preposition, the Ablative of the Gerund denotes in a few instances some other relation than that of means, as time, separation, etc.:

Incipiendo refugi, I drew back in the very beginning. Cic.

## H. Gerundives.

543. The Gerundive, like other participles, agrees with nouns and pronouns:

Inita sunt consilia urbis delendae, plans have been formed for destroying the city (of the city to be destroyed). Cic. Numa sacerdotibus creandis animum adjecit, Numa gave his attention to the appointment of priests. Liv.

Note.—A noun (or pronoun) and a Gerundive in agreement with it form the Gerundive Construction.

## 544. The Gerundive Construction may be used—

1. In place of a Gerund with a direct object. It then takes the case of the Gerund whose place it supplies:

Libīdō ējus videndī (= libīdō eum videndī), the desire of seeing him (lit., of him to be seen). Cic. Platonis audiendī (= Platonem audiendī) studiosus, fond of hearing Plato. Cic. Legendīs ōrātōribus (= legendō ōrātōrēs), by reading the orators. Cic.

Note.—The Gerundive Construction should not be used for the Gerund with a neuter pronoun or adjective as object, as it could not distinguish the gender:

Artem vēra āc falsa dījūdicandī, the art of distinguishing true things from false. Cic.

2. In the Dative and in the Ablative with a preposition:

Locum oppido condendo ceperunt, they selected a place for founding a city. Liv. Tempora demetendis fructibus accommodata, scasons suitable for gathering fruits. Cic. Brutus in liberanda patria est interfectus, Brutus was slain in liberating his country. Cic.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Ablative of the Gerund is used most frequently after  $\tilde{a}$  (ab),  $d\tilde{e}$ , ex ( $\tilde{e}$ ), in; rarely after eum,  $pr\tilde{o}$ , and super.

NOTE 1.—The learner will remember that in the Dative (542, II., note) and in the Ablative with a preposition (542, IV., note 1) the Gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare. The Gerundive Construction supplies its place.

Note 2.—The Gerundive Construction sometimes denotes purpose or tendency, especially in the Accusative after verbs of giving, permitting, taking, etc.:

Attribuit Îtaliam vastandam (for ad vastandum) Catilinae, he assigned Huly to Catiline to rarage (to be ravaged). Cie. Firmandae valctădini în Campăniam conecssit, he withdrew into Campania to confirm his health. Tac. Hace trădendae Hannibali victoriae sunt, these things are for the purpose of giving victory to Hannibal. Liv. Proficiscitur cognoscendae antiquitătis, he sets out for the purpose of studying antiquity Tac.

Note 3.—The Gerundive Construction in the Dative occurs after certain official names, as decemeiri, triumviri, comitia: 1

Decemviros légibus scribendis creavimus, we have appointed a committee of ten to prepare laws. Liv.

Note 4.—The Gerundive Construction in the Ablative occurs after comparatives:

Nüllum officium referendā grātiā magis necessarium est, no duty is more necessary than that of returning a favor. Cic.

Note 5.—The Gerundive Construction is in general admissible only in transitive verbs, but it occurs in *ūtor*, fruor, fungor, potior, etc., originally transitive:

Ad munus fungendum, for discharging the duty. Cic. Spcs potiundorum castrorum, the hope of getting possession of the camp. Caes.

#### III. SUPINES.

545. The Supine, like the Gerund, is a verbal noun. It has a form in  $\mathbf{um}$  and a form in  $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ .

Note 1.—The Supine in um is an Accusative; that in  $\tilde{u}$  is generally an Ablative, though sometimes perhaps a Dative,<sup>2</sup>

Note 2.—The Supine in um governs the same case as the verb:

Lēgātēs mittunt rogātum auxilium, they send ambassadors to ask aid. Caes.

## RULE LIX.-Supine in Um.

# 546. The Supine in um is used with verbs of motion to express purpose:

Lēgātī vēnērunt rēs repetītum, deputies came to demand restitution. Liv. Ad Caesarem congrātulātum convēnērunt, they came to Caesar to congratulate him. Caes.

1. The Supine in um occurs in a few instances after verbs which do not directly express motion:

Filiam Agrippae nüptum dedit, he gave his daughter in marriage to Agrippa. Suct.

2. The Supine in um with the verb  $\epsilon \delta$  is equivalent to the forms of the first Periphrastic Conjugation, and may often be rendered literally:

Bonos omnes perditum eunt, they are going to destroy all the good. Sall,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> But in most instances the Dative may be explained as dependent either upon the verb or upon the predicate as a whole; see 384, 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See Hübschmann, p. 223; Draeger, H., p. 833; Jolly, p. 201.

Note.—But in subordinate clauses the Supine in um with the verb  $\epsilon \bar{o}$  is often used for the simple verb:

Ultum îre (= uleiseī) injūriās festinat, he hastens to avenge the injuries. Sall.

3. The Supine in um with  $\bar{v}r\bar{i}$ , the Infinitive Passive of  $e\bar{v}$ , forms, it will be remembered (222, III., 1), the Future Passive Infinitive:

Brātum visum īrī ā mē puto, I think Brutus will be seen by me. Cie.

- 4. The Supine in um is not very common; <sup>1</sup> but purpose may be denoted by other constructions:
  - 1) By ut or qui with the Subjunctive; see 497.
  - 2) By Gerunds or Gerundives; see 542, I., note 2, and III., note 2; 544, 2, note 2.
  - 3) By Participles; see 549, 3.

## RULE LX.-Supine in ū.

# **547.** The Supine in $\bar{u}$ is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (424):

Quid est tam jūcundum audītū, what is so agrecable to hear (in hearing)? Cie. Difficile dictū est, it is difficult to tell. Cie. Dē genere mortis difficile dictū est, it is difficult to speak of the kind of death. Cie. Cīvitās incrēdibile memorātū est quantum crēverit, it is incredible to relate how much the state increased. Sall.

Note.—The Supine in  $\bar{u}$  never governs an oblique case, but it may take an Ablative with a preposition, as in the third example above.

- The Supine in ū is used chiefly with jūcundus, optimus; facilis, proclivis, difficilis; incredibilis, memorābilis; honestus, turpis, dīgnus, indīgnus; fās, nefās, opus, and scelus.
- 2. The Supine in  $\vec{u}$  is very rare. The most common examples are  $aud\vec{v}t\hat{u}$ ,  $dict\hat{u}$ ,  $fact\hat{u}$ ,  $n\tilde{u}t\tilde{u}$ ,  $vis\hat{u}$ ; less common,  $c\hat{v}gnit\hat{u}$ ,  $intell\hat{c}ct\hat{u}$ ,  $invent\hat{u}$ ,  $memorat\hat{u}$ ,  $relat\hat{u}$ ,  $sc\hat{i}l$ ,  $tractat\hat{u}$ ,  $vic\hat{u}$ .

### IV. Participles.

## 548. The Participle is a verbal adjective which governs the same cases as the verb:

Animus se non videns alia cernit, the mind, though it does not see itself (lit., not seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic.

Note 1.—For Participles used substantively, see 441.

Note 2.—Particip'es used substantively sometimes retain the adverbial modifiers which belonged to them as participles, and sometimes take adjective modifiers:

Non tam praemia sequi recte factorum quam ipsa recte facta, not to seek the rewards of good deeds (things rightly done) so much as good deeds themselves. Cie. Praeclarum atque divinum factum, an excellent and divine deed. Cic.

## 549. Participles are often used—

1. To denote Time, Cause, Manner, Means:

- $^1$  According to Draeger, 1L. p. 829, the Supine in um is found in only two hundred and thirty-six verbs, mostly of the First and Third Conjugations.
- <sup>2</sup> According to Draeger, H., p. 833, the Supine in \(\vec{u}\) is found in one hundred and nine verbs.

Platő seribens mortuus est, Plato died while writing. Cie. Ituri in proclium canunt, they sing when about to go into battle. Tac. Sol oriens diem conficit, the sun by its rising causes the day. Cic. Milites renuntiant, se perfidiam veritos revertisse, the soldiers report that they returned because they feared perfidy (having feared). Caes.

### 2. To denote Condition or Concession:

Mendåel homini në vërum quidem dicenti crëdere nën solëmus, we are not wont to believe a liar, even if he speaks the truth. Cie. Reluctante nätüri, irritus labor est, if nature opposas, effort is vain. Sen. Seripta tua jam did exspectins, nën nudeë tamen flagitare, though I have been long expecting your work, yet I do not dare to ask for it. Cie.

#### 3. To denote Purpose:

Perseus rediit, belli casum tentaturus, Perseus returned to try (about to try) the fortune of war. Liv. Attribuit nos trucidandos Cethego, he assigned us to Cethegus to slaughter. Cie.

## 4. To supply the place of Relative Clauses:

Omnes aliud agentes, aliud simulantes, improbi sunt, all who do one thing and pretend another are dishonest. Cic.

## 5. To supply the place of Principal Clauses:

Classem devictam cepit, he conquered and took the fleet (took the fleet conquered). Nep. Re consentients, vocabulis differebant, they agreed in fact, but differed in words. Cie.

Note 1.—A participle with a negative is often Lest rendered by a participial noun and the preposition without:

Miserum est, nihll pröficientem angi, it is said to be troubled without accomplishing anything. Cic. Non ernbeseens, without blushing. Cic.

Note 2.—The perfect participle is often best rendered by a participial or verbal noun with of  $\boldsymbol{z}$ 

Homerus fuit ante Romam conditam, Homer lived (was) before the founding of Rome (before Rome founded). Cic.

550. The Tenses of the Participle—Present, Perfect, and Future—denote only relative time. They accordingly represent the time respectively as present, past, and future relatively to that of the principal verb:

Oculus se non videns alia cernit, the eye, though it does not see itself (not seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic. Platé scribens mortuus est, Peato died while writing. Cic. Uva maturata dulcescit, the grape, when it has ripened (having ripened), becomes sweet. Cic. Sapiens bona semper placitura laudat, the wise man praises blessings which will always please (being about to please). Sen.

NOTE 1.—The perfect participle, both in deponent and in passive verbs, is sometimes used of present time, and sometimes in passive verbs it loses in a great degree its force as a tense, and is best rendered by a verbal noun:

Eisdem ducibus ūsus Numidās mittit, employing the same persons as guide, he sent the Numidians. Caes. Incēnsās perfert nāvēs, he reports the burning of the ships (the ships set on fire). Verg. See also 544.

Note 2.—In the compound tenses the perfect participle often becomes virtually a predicate adjective expressing the result of the action:

Causae sunt cognitae, the causes are known. Caes. See also 471, 6, note 1.

Note 3 .- For the Perfect Participle with habeo, see 388, 1, note.

Note 4.—The want of a perfect active participle is sometimes supplied by a *temporal* clause, and sometimes by a perfect passive participle in the Ablative Absolute:

Caesar, postquam vēnit, Rhēnum trānsīre eōnstituit, Caesar, having arrived, decided to cross the Rhine. Caes. Equitātū praemissō subsequēbātur, having sent forward his cavalry, he followed. Caes. See also 431; 519.

Note 5.—The want of a present passive participle is generally supplied by a temporal clause:

Cum à Catône laudābar, reprehendī mē à cēterīs patiebar, being praised by Cato, I allowed myself to be censured by the others. Cic.

## CHAPTER VI.

## SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.

## RULE LXI.-Use of Adverbs.

551. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs:

Sapientës fëliciter vivunt, the wise live happily. Cic. Facile doctissimus, unquestionably the most learned. Cic. Haud aliter, not otherwise. Verg

Note 1.—For predicate adverbs with sum, see 360, note 2; for adverbs with nouns used adjectively, see 441, 3; for adverbs in place of adjectives, see 443, notes 3 and 4; for adverbs with participles used substantively, see 548, note 2.

Note 2.—Sie and ita mean 'so,' 'thus.' Ita has also a limiting sense, 'in so far,' as in  $i'a-s\bar{\imath}$  (507, 3, note 2). Ade $\bar{\imath}$  means 'to such a degree or result'; tam, tantopere, 'so much'—tam used mostly with adjectives and adverbs, and tantopere with verbs.

## 552. The common negative particles are non, ne, hand.

- 1. Non is the usual negative; nē is used in prohibitions, wishes, and purposes (483, 488; 497), and hand, in hand seið an, and with adjectives and adverbs: hand miribile, not wonderful; hand aliter, not otherwise. Nī for nē is rare. Nē nēn after vidē is often best rendered whether.
- 2. In non modo non and in non solum non the second non is generally omitted before sed or vērum, followed by nē—quidem or vix (rarely etiam), when the verb of the second clause belongs also to the first:

Assentātiō non modo amīco, sed ne libero quidem dīgna est, flattery is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man. Cic.

3. Minus often has nearly the force of non; sī minus = sī non. Sīn aliter has nearly the same force as sī minus. Minimē often means 'not at all,' 'by no means.'

553. Two Negatives are generally equivalent to an affirmative, as in English:

Nihil non arroget, let him claim everything. Hor. Neque hoe Zeno non vidit, nor did Zeno overlook this. Cie.

 Non before a general negative gives it the force of an indefinite affirmative, but after such negative the force of a general affirmative;

Nonnemo, some one; nonnilal, something; nonnunquam, sometimes; Nemo non, every one; nilal non, everything; nunquam non, always.

 After a general negative, nē-quidem gives emphasis to the negation, and neque -neque, nēre-nēre, and the like, repeat the negation distributively:

Non practer undum est no id quidem, we must not pass by even this. Cic. Nomo unquam neque poeta neque orator fait, no one was ever either a poet or an orator. Cic. Note.—For the Use of Prepositions, see 432-435.

554. Coördinate Conjunctions unite similar constructions (309, 1). They comprise five classes.

## I. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote UNION:

Castor et Pollux, Castor and Pollux. Cic. Senitus populusque, the senate and people. Cic. Nee crat difficile, nor was it difficult. Liv.

- 1. For list, see 310, 1.
- 2. Et simply connects; que implies a more intimate relationship; atque and ūc generally give prominence to what follows. Neque and nec have the force of et non. Et and etiam sometimes mean even.

Note.—Atque and we generally mean as, than, after adjectives and adverbs of likeness and unlikeness: tālis ac, 'such as'; acque ac, 'equally as'; aliter atque, 'otherwise than.' See also 451, 5.

- 8. Que is an enclitic, and ac in the best prose is used only before consonants.
- 4. Etiam, quoque, adeô, and the like, are sometimes associated with et, atque, āc, and que, and sometimes even supply their place. Quoque follows the word which it connects: is quoque, 'he also.' Etiam, 'also,' 'further.' 'even,' often adds a new circumstance.
- 5. Sometimes two copulatives are used: et—et, que—que,¹ et—que, que—et, que—atque,¹ tum—tum, cum—tum, 'both—and'; but cum—tum gives prominence to the second word or clause; non solum (non modo, or non tantum—sed etiam (vérum etiam), 'not only—but also'; neque (nec)—neque (nec), 'neither—nor'; neque (nec)—et (que), 'not—but (and)'; et—neque (nec), 'and not.'
- 6. Between two words connected copulatively the conjunction is generally expressed, though sometimes omitted, especially between the names of two colleagues. Between several words it is in the best prose generally repeated or omitted altogether, though que may be used with the last even when the conjunction is omitted between the others: paix et tranquilities et concordia, or pix, tranquilities, concordia, or pax, tranquilities, concordia, or pax, tranquilities, concordiage.

Note 1.—Et is often omlitted between conditional clauses, except before non.

Note 2.—A series may begin with primum or primi, may be continued by deinde followed by tum, posted, practiced, or some similar word, and may close with denique

15

<sup>1</sup> Que—que ls rare, except in poetry; que—atque, rare even in poetry; see Verg., Aen., I., 18; Geor., I., 182.

or  $postrēm\delta_i$ . Deinde may be repeated several times between  $pr\bar{\imath}mum$  and  $d\bar{e}nique$  or  $postr\bar{e}m\delta_i$ .

#### II. DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote SEPARATION:

Aut vestra aut sua culpa, either your fault or his own. Liv. Duabus tribusve horis, in two or three hours. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 2.
- 2. Aut denotes a stronger antithesis than rel, and must be used if the one supposition excludes the other: aut rērum aut fidaum, 'either true or false.' Vēl implies a difference in the expression rather than in the thing. It is generally corrective, and is ofference followed by potius, etiam, or dīcam: laudātur, vel etiam amātur, 'he is praised, or even (rather) loved.' It sometimes means even, and sometimes for example. Velut often means for example. Ve for vēl is appended as an enclitic.

Note.—In negative clauses aut and ve often continue the negation:  $n\bar{o}n$  honor aut  $virt\bar{u}s$ , 'neither (not) honor nor virtue.'

3. Sire (\$\sir-ve\) does not imply any real difference or opposition; it often connects different names of the same object; Pallas sive Minerva, 'Pallas or Minerva' (another name of the same goddess).

Note.—Disjunctive conjunctions are often combined as correlatives: aut—aut, vel—vel, etc., 'either—or.'

#### III. Adversative Conjunctions denote opposition of contrast:

Cupio me esse elementem, sed me inertiae condemno, I wish to be mild, but I condemn myself for inaction. Cie. Magnes ferrum ad se trahit, rationem autem adferre non possumus, the magnet attracts iron, but we can not assign a reason. Cie.

- 1. For list, see 310, 3.
- 2. Sed and vērum mark a direct opposition; autem and verō only a transition; at emphasizes the opposition; atquī often introduces an objection; cēterum means 'but still,' 'as to the rest'; tamen, 'yet.'

Note.—Sed and verum are sometimes resumptive; see IV., 3, below:

Sed age, responde, but come, reply. Plaut.

- 3. Attamen, sedtamen, veruntamen, 'but yet,' are compounds of tamen.
- Autem and verô are postpositive, i. e., they are placed after one or more words in their clauses.

#### IV. Illative Conjunctions denote inference:

In umbra igitur pūgnābimus, we shall therefore fight in the shade. Cie.

- 1. For list, see 310, 4.
- Certain other words, sometimes classed with adverbs and sometimes with conjunctions, are also illatives, as e\(\tilde{e}\), idei\(\tilde{e}\), ideir\(\tilde{e}\), proptere\(\tilde{a}\), quamobrem, qu\(\tilde{a}\)propter, qu\(\tilde{a}\)r\(\tilde{e}\), qu\(\tilde{e}\)rical.
- 3. Igitur generally follows the word which it connects:  $\hbar ie$  igitur, this one therefore. After a digression, igitur, sed, sed tamen, virum, virum tamen, etc., are often used to resume an interrupted thought or construction. They may often be rendered 'I say': Sed st quis, 'if any one. I say.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For examples, see Cic., Fam., XV., 14; Div., II., 56.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cicero, Inv., II., 49, has a series of ten members in which *primum* introduces \*\*.3 first member, *postrēmē* the last, and *deinde* each of the other eight.

#### V. Causal Conjunctions denote cause:

Difficile est consilium, sum enim solus, counsel is difficult, for I am alone. Cie. Etenim jus amant, for they love the right. Cie.

- 1. For list, see 310, 5,
- 2. Etenim and namque denote a closer connection than enim and nam.
- 8. Enim is postpositive; see 554, III., 4.
- 555, Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions (309, 2). They comprise eight classes.
  - I. Temporal Conjunctions denote time:

Păruit cum necesse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary. Cic. Dum ego in Sicilia sum, while I am in Sicily. Cic. See also 311, 1; 518-521.

- 1. Dum added to a negative means yet; nondum, 'not yet'; rixdum, 'scarcely yet.'
- II. Comparative Conjunctions denote comparison:

Ut optāstī, ita est, it is as you desired. Cie. Velut sī adesset, as if he were present. Caes. See also 311, 2; 513, II.

1. Correlatives are often used: Tam-quam, 'as,' 'so—as,' 'as much—as'; tam-quam  $quod\ m\bar{u}xim\bar{e}$ , 'as much as possible';  $n\bar{e}n\ minus-quam$ , 'not less than';  $n\bar{e}n\ magis-quam$ , 'not more than.'

Tam-quam and ut-ita with a superlative are sometimes best rendered by the with the comparative;  $ut\ maximi-ita\ maximi$ , the more—the more.

#### III. Conditional Conjunctions denote condition:

SI peccavi, Ignosec, if I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Nisi est consilium domi, unless there is wisdom at home. Cic. See also 311, 3; 506-513.

1. Nisi, 'if not,' in negative sentences often means 'except'; and nisi quod, 'except that,' may be used even in affirmative sentences. Nisi may mean 'than,' Nihil aliud nisi = 'nothing further' (more, except); nihil aliud quam = 'nothing else' (other than).

#### IV. Concessive Conjunctions denote concession:

Quamquam intellegunt, though they understand. Cic. Etsi nihil habeat, although he has nothing. Cic. See also 311, 4; 514; 525.

#### V. Final Conjunctions denote purpose:

Esse oportet, ut vivás, it is necessary to eat, that you may live. Cic. See also 311, 5; 497-499.

## VI. Consecutive Conjunctions denote consequence of result:

Attieus itä vixit, ut Atheniensibus esset eärissimus, Atticus so liced that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. Sec also 311, 6; 500-504.

#### VII. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS denote CAUSE:

Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cie. See also 311, 7; 516; 517.

VIII. Interrogative Conjunctions of Particles denote inquiry of question:

Quaesierās, nonne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. See also 311, 8; 351-353; 529.

- 556. Interjections are sometimes used entirely alone, as *èheu*, 'alas!' and sometimes with certain cases of nouns; see 381, with note 3.
- 557. Various parts of speech, and even oaths and imprecations, sometimes have the force of interjections:

Pax (petce), be still! miscrum, miscrabile, sad, lamentable! oro, pray! age, agite, come, well! mehercules, by Hercules! per deum fidem, in the name of the gods! sodes = sī audes (for audies), if you will hear!

## CHAPTER VII.

## RULES OF SYNTAX.

558. For convenience of reference, the principal Rules of Syntax are here introduced in a body.

## AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

I. A noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in CASE (362):

Brūtus custos lībertātis fuit, Brutus was the guardian of liberty.

II. An Appositive agrees in Case with the noun or pronoun which it qualifies (363):

Cluilius rex moritur, Cluilius the king dies.

## Nominative.—Vocative.

- III. The Subject of a Finite verb is put in the Nominative (368): Servius regnavit, Servius reigned.
- IV. The Name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative (369):

Perge, Laeli, proceed, Laelius.

### ACCUSATIVE.

V. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative (371):

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world.

VI. Verbs of Making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing (373):

Hamilcarem imperatorem fecerunt, they made Hamilcar commander.

VII. Some verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and concealing admit two Accusatives—one of the *person* and the other of the *thing* (374):

Me sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion.

VIII. A verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to define its application (378):

Capita vēlāmur, we have our heads reiled.

IX. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (379):

Septem et trigintă regnavit annos, he reigned thirty-seven years. Quinque milia passuum ambulare, to walk five miles.

X. The Place to which is designated by the Accusative (380):

I. Generally with a preposition-ad or in:

Legiones ad urbem adducit, he is leading the legions to or toward the city.

II. In names of towns without a preposition:

Nuntius Romam redit, the messenger returns to Rome.

XI. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in Exclamations (381):

Heu mê miserum, ah me unhappy!

#### DATIVE.

XII. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It is used (381)—

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Tibi servio, I am devoted to you.

II. With Transitive verbs, in connection with the Direct Object:

Agros plebi dedit, he gave lands to the common people.

XIII. Two Datives—the object to which and the object or end for which—occur with a few verbs (390):

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Malo est hominibus avaritia, avarice is an evil to men.

II. With Transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Quinque cohortes castris praesidio reliquit, he left five cohorts for the defence of the camp.

XIV. With adjectives, the OBJECT TO WHICH the quality is directed is put in the Dative (391):

Omnibus earum est, it is dear to all.

XV. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs (392):

1. With a few nouns from verbs which take the Dative:

Jūstitia est obtemperātio legibus, justice is obedience to laws.

II. With a few adverbs from adjectives which take the Dative:

Congruenter năturae vivere, to live in accordance with nature.

#### GENITIVE

XVI. Any noun, not an Appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive (395):

Catonis orationes, Cato's orations.

XVII. Many adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning (399):

Avidus laudis, desirous of praise.

XVIII. A noun predicated of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive (401):

Omnia hostium erant, all things belonged to the enemy.

XIX. The Genitive is used (406)-

I. With misereor and miseresco:

Miserère laborum, pity the labors.

II. With recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor:

Meminit praeteritorum, he remembers the past.

III. With refert and interest:

Interest omnium, it is the interest of all.

XX. The Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing are used with a few transitive verbs (409):

I. With verbs of reminding, admonishing:

Te amicitiae commonefacit, he reminds you of friendship.

II. With verbs of accusing, convicting, acquitting:

Viros sceleris arguis, you accuse men of crime.

III. With miscret, paenitet, pudet, taedet, and piget:

Eōrum nōs miseret, we pity them.

## ABLATIVE PROPER.

XXI. The Place from which is denoted by the Ablative (412):

Generally with a preposition—ā, ab, dē, or ex:

Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city.

II. In Names of Towns without a preposition:

Platonem Athenis arcessivit, he summoned Plato from Athens.

XXII. Separation. Source, and Cause are denoted by the Ablative with or without a preposition (113):

Caedem à vôbis dépellé, I ward off slaughter from you. Hée audivî de parente meé, I heard this from my father. Ars útilitâte laudâtur, an art is praised because of its usefulness.

XXIII. Comparatives without QUAM are followed by the Ablative (417):

Nihil est amábilius virtute, nothing is more locely than virtue.

## INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE.

XXIV. The Ablative is used (419)—

I. To denote Accompaniment. It then takes the preposition cum:

Vivit eum Balbo, he lives with Balbus.

II. To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an Adjective or by a Genitive:

Summā virtūte adulēseēns, a youth of the highest virtue.

III. To denote Manner. It then takes the preposition cum, or is modified by an Adjective or by a Genitive:

Cum virtute vixit, he lived virtuously.

XXV. Instrument and Means are denoted by the Ablative (420):

Cornibus tauri se tutantur, bulls defend themselves with their horns.

XXVI. The Ablative is used (421)—

I. With utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plūrimis rebus fruimur et ūtimur, we enjoy and use very many things.

II. With VERBS and Adjectives of Plenty:

Villa abundat laete, caseo, melle, the rella abounds in milk, cheese, and honey.

III. With dignus, indignus, and contentus:

Digni sunt amicitia, they are worthy of friendship.

XXVII. Price is generally denoted by the Ablative (422):

Vendidit auro patriam, he sold his country for gold.

XXVIII. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative (423):

Ūno die longiorem mensem faciunt, they make the month one day longer.

XXIX. A noun, adjective, or verb may take an Ablative to define its application (424):

Nomine, non potestate, fuit rex, he was king in name, not in power.

### LOCATIVE ABLATIVE.

XXX. The Place in which is denoted (425)—

I. Generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition in:

Hannibal in Ĭtaliā fuit, Hannibal was in Italy.

II. In Names of Towns by the *Locative*, if such a form exists, otherwise by the *Locative Ablative*:

Rômae fuit, he was at Rome.

XXXI. The TIME of an action is denoted by the Ablative (429):

Octogesimo anno est mortuus, he died in his eightieth year.

XXXII. A noun and a participle may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an attendant circumstance (431):

Servio regnante viguerunt, they flourished in the reign of Servius.

## Cases with Prepositions.

XXXIII. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with prepositions (432):

Ad amīcum, to a friend. In Ītaliā, in Italy.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, AND VERBS.

XXXIV. An adjective agrees with its noun in gender, number, and case (438):

Fortuna cacca est, fortune is blind.

XXXV. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person (445):

Animal, quod sanguinem habet, an animal which has blood.

XXXVI. A finite verb agrees with its subject in NUMBER and PERSON (460):

Ego rēgēs ējēcī, I have banished kings.

## USE OF THE INDICATIVE.

XXXVII. The Indicative is used in treating of facts (474): Deus mundum aedificavit, God made (built) the world.

Moods and Tenses in Principal Clauses.

XXXVIII. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS DESIRED (483):

Valeant cīvēs, may the citizens be well.

XXXIX. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action not as real, but as possible (485):

Hie quaerat quispiam, here some one may inquire.

XL. The Imperative is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties (187):

Jüstitiam cole, practice justice.

Moods and Tenses in Subordinate Clauses.

XLI. Principal tenses depend upon principal tenses; historical apon historical (491):

Enititur ut vineat, he strives to conquer.

XLII. The Subjunctive is used to denote Purpose (497)-

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, etc.: Missi sunt qui (= ut ii) consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult

Missi sunt qui  $(=ut\ ii)$  consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consule Apollo.

II. With ut, nē, quō, quōminus:

Enītitur ut vineat, he strives that he may conquer.

XLIII. The Subjunctive is used to denote Result (500)-

I. With the relative quī, and with relative adverbs, as ubĭ, unde, cūr, etc.:

Non is sum qui  $(=ut\ ego)$  his ûtar,  $I\ am\ not\ such\ a\ one\ as\ to\ use\ these\ things.$ 

II. With ut, ut non, quin:

Ita vixit ut Atheniensibus esset carissimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians.

XLIV. Conditional sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, take (507)—

I. The Indicative in both clauses to assume the supposed case:

Sī spīritum ducit, vīvit, if he breathes, he is alive.

II. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as possible:

Dies deficiat, si velim eausam defendere, the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause.

III. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as contrary to fact:

Pluribus verbis ad te scriberem, si res verba desideraret, I should write to you more fully (with more words), if the case required words.

XLV. Conditional clauses take the Subjunctive (513)—

I. With dum, modo, dummodo, 'if only,' 'provided that'; dum nē, modo nē, dummodo nē, 'if only not,' 'provided that not':

Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, mental powers remain, if only industry remains.

II. With āc sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tanquam, tanquam sī, velut, velut sī, 'as if,' 'than if,' involving an ellipsis of the real conclusion:

Perinde habêbô, ae sî serîpsisses, I shall regard it just as if (i. e., as I should if) you had written.

XLVI. Concessive clauses take (515)—

I. Generally the Indicative in the best prose, when introduced by quamquam:

Quamquain intellegent, though they understand.

II. The Indicative or Subjunctive when introduced by etsī, etiamsī, tametsī, or sī, like conditional clauses with sī:

Etsī nihil seið quod gaudcam, though I know no reason why I should rejoice.

III. The Subjunctive when introduced by licet, quamvis, ut,  $n\bar{\epsilon}$ , cum, or the relative  $qu\bar{\imath}$ :

Licet irrideat, though he may deride.

XLVII. Causal clauses with quod, quia, quoniam, quandō, generally take (516)—

I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively on one's own authority: Quoniam supplication decreta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority:

Sõeratês accūsātus est, quod corrumperet juventūtem, Socrates was accused, because he corrupted the youth.

XLVIII. Causal clauses with *cum* and *qui* generally take the Subjunctive in writers of the best period (517):

Cum vita metus plēna sit, since life is full of fear.

XLIX. In temporal clauses with postquam, posteāquam, ubi, ut, simul atque, etc., 'after,' 'when,' 'as soon as,' the Indicative is used (518):

Postquam vidit, etc., castra posuit, he pitched his camp, after he saw, etc.

L. I. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of while, as long as, take the Indicative (519):

Haec feel, dum lienit, I did this while it was allowed.

II. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of until, take—

Délîberâ hốc, dum ego redeô, consider this until I return.

2. The Subjunctive, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Differant, dum deferveseat ira, let them defer it till their anger cools.

- LI. In temporal clauses with antequam and priusquam (520)—
- I. Any tense except the Imperfect and Pluperfect is put-
- 1. In the Indicative, when the action is viewed as an actual fact:

Priusquam lücet, adsunt, they are present before it is light.

2. In the Sunjunctive, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Antequam de re publica dicam, before I (can) speak of the republie.

II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put in the  ${\tt Subjunctive}$  :

Antequam urbem caperent, before they took the city.

- LII. In temporal clauses with cum (521)-
- I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put in the Indicative:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent, they approve.

- II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put-
- 1. In the Indicative, when the temporal clause asserts an historical fact:

Păruit cum necesse crat, he obeyed when it was necessary.

2. In the Subjunctive, when the temporal clause simply defines the time of the principal action:

Cum epistulam complicarem, while I was folding the letter.

- LIII. The principal clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE on becoming INDIRECT take the Infinitive or Subjunctive as follows (523):
  - I. When Declarative, they take the Infinitive with a Subject Accusative:
    Dicebat animos esse divines, he was wont to say that souls are divine.
  - II. When Interrogative, they take-
  - 1. Generally the Subjunctive:

Ad postulata Caesaris respondit, quid sibi vellet, eur veniret, to the demands of Caesar he replied, what did he wish, why did he come?

2. Sometimes the *Infinitive with a Subject Accusative*, as in rhetorical questions:

Doebbant rem esse testimonio, etc.; quid esse levius, they showed that the fact was a proof, etc.; what was more inconsiderate?

III. When IMPERATIVE, they take the Subjunctive:

Scribit Labienō cum legione veniat, he writes to Labienus to come (that he should come) with a legion.

LIV. The subordinate clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE, on becoming INDIRECT, take the Subjunctive (524):

Respondit së id quod in Nerviis fëcisset facturum, he replied that he would do what he had done in the case of the Nervii.

LV. The Subjunctive is used (529)—

I. In indirect questions:

Quaeritur, cur doctissimi homines dissentiant, it is a question, why the most learned men disagree.

II. Often in clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon another Subjunctive:

Nihil indignius est quam eum qui culpă careat supplició non carere, nothing is more shameful than that he who is free from fault should not be exempt from punishment.

Infinitive.

LVI. Many verbs admit an Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning (533):

Haee vitare cupimus, we desire to avoid these things.

LVII. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive (534):

Te sapere docet, he teaches you to be wise.

LVIII. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject (536):

Platonem Tarentum vēnisse reperio, I find that Plato came to Tarentum.

## SUPINE.

LIX. The Supine in um is used with verbs of motion to express PURPOSE (546):

Lėgati vėnėrunt res repetitum, deputies came to demand restitution.

LX. The Supine in  $\tilde{u}$  is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (517):

Quid est tam jucundum audītu, what is so agrecable to hear (in hearing)?

#### Adverbs.

LXI. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (551):

Sapientes feliciter vivunt, the wise live happily.

## CHAPTER VIII.

## ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.

559. The Latin admits of great variety in the arrangement of the different parts of the sentence, thus affording peculiar facilities both for securing proper emphasis, and for imparting to its periods that harmonious flow which characterizes the Latin classics. But with all this freedom and variety, there are certain general laws of arrangement which it will be useful to notice.

### I. Arrangement of Words.

General Rules.

560. The Subject followed by its modifiers occupies the first place in the sentence, and the Predicate preceded by its modifiers the last place:

Sol oriens diem conficit, the sun rising makes the day. Cic. Animus aeger semper errat, a diseased mind always errs. Cic. Miltiades Athenas liberavit, Miltiades liberated Athens. Nep.

- 561. Emphasis and Euphony affect the arrangement of words.
- I. Any word, except the subject, may be made emphatic by being placed at the BEGINNING of the sentence:

Silent lēgēs inter arma, laws are silent in war. Cic. Numitori Remus dēditur, Remus is delivered to Numitor. Liv.

II. Any word, except the predicate, may be made emphatic by being placed at the END of the sentence:

Nobis non satisfacit ipse Demosthenes, even Demostuenes does not satisfy us. Cic. Consulatum petivit nanguam, he never sought the consulship. Cic.

III. Two words naturally connected, as a noun and its adjective, or a noun and its Genitive, are sometimes made *emphatic* by Separation:

Objurgătionis nonnunquam incidunt necessăriae, sometimes necessary RE-PROOFS occur. Cic. Justitiae fungătur officiis, let him discharge the duties of justice. Cic.

Note.—A word may be made emphatic by being placed between the parts of a compound tense :

Magna adhibita cura est, great care has been taken. Cie.

562. Chiasmus. —When two groups of words are contrasted, the order of the first is often reversed in the second:

<sup>1</sup> Se called from the Greek letter X.

Fragile corpus animus sempiternus movet, the imperishable soul moves the perishable body. Cic.

563. Kindred Words.—Different forms of the same word, or different words of the same derivation, are generally placed near each other:

Ad senem senex de senectûte serîpsî, I, an old man, wrote to an old man on the subject of old age. Cic. Inter se aliis alii prosunt, they benefit each wher. Cic.

- 564. A word which has a common relation to two other words connected by conjunctions, is placed—
  - I. Generally before or after both:

Pācis et artēs et gloria, both the arts and the glory of peace. Liv. Belli pācisque artēs, the arts of war and of peace. Liv.

Note.—A Genitive or an adjective following two nouns may qualify both, but it more frequently qualifies only the latter:

Haec percunctatio ac denuntiatio belli, this inquiry and this declaration of war. Liv.

Il. Sometimes directly after the first before the conjunction:

Honoris certamen et gloriae, a struggle for honor and glory. Cic. Agri omnes et maria, all lands and seas. Cic.

## Special Rules.

565. The Modifiers of a Noun generally follow it. They may be either adjectives or nouns:

Populus Rômânus decrevit, the Roman people decreed. Cic. Herodotus, pater historiae, Herodotus, the father of history. Cic. Liber dê officiis, the bock on duties. Cic.

1. Modifiers, when emphatic, are placed before their nouns:

Tuscus ager Römanö adjacet, the Tuscan territory borders on the Roman. Liv.

2. When a noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, the usual order is, Adjective—Genitive—noun:

Magna civium penuria, a great scarcity of citizens. Cic.

3. An adjective is often separated from its noun by a monosyllabic preposition:

Māgnō cum perículo esse, to be attended with great peril. Cic.

4. In the poets an adjective is often separated from its noun by the modifier of another noun :

Insper fit atuae veniet pluma superbiae, the unexpected down shall come upon your pride. Hor,

566. The Modifiers of an Adjective generally precede it, but, if not adverbs, they may follow it:

Facile doctissimus, unquestionably the most learned. Cic. Omni actātī commūnis, common to every age. Cic. Avidus laudis, desirous of praise. Cic.

567. The Modifiers of a Verb generally precede it:

Glöria virtûtem sequitur, glory follows virtue. Cic. Mundus deō püret, the world is subject to God. Cic. Vehementer dixit, he spoke vehemently. Cic.

1. When the verb is placed at the beginning of the sentence, the modifiers, of course, follow; see the first example under 561, I.

2. An emphatic modifier may of course stand at the beginning or at the end of the sentence (561):

Facillime cognoscuntur adulescentes, most easily are the young men recognized. Cic.

3. Of two or more modifiers belonging to the same verb, that which in thought is most intimately connected with the verb stands next to it, while the others are arranged as emphasis and euphony may require:

Mors propter brevitätem vitae nänquam longé abest, death is never far distant, in consequence of the shortness of life. Cic.

568. The Modifiers of an Adverb generally precede it, but a Dative often follows it:

Valde vehementer dixit, he spoke very vehemently. Cic. Congruenter naturae vivit, he lives agreeably to nature. Cic.

- 569. Special Words.—Some words have a favorite place in the sentence, which they seldom leave. Thus—
  - I. The Demonstrative generally precedes its noun:

Custôs hújus urbis, the quardian of this city. Cie.

1. Ille in the sense of well-known (450, 4) generally follows its noun, if not accompanied by an adjective:

Medea illa, that well-known Medea. Cic.

2. Pronouns are often brought together, especially quisque with suus or sui:

Justitia suum cuique tribuit, justice gives to every man his due (his own). Cic. Qui sese student praestare, etc., who are eager to excel, etc. Sall.

II. Prepositions generally stand directly before their cases, but tenus and versus follow their cases:

In Asiam profugit, he fled into Asia. Cic. Collo tenus, up to the neck. Ov.

1. The preposition frequently follows the relative, sometimes other pronouns, and sometimes even nouns, especially in poetry:

Rés qua de agitur, the subject of which we are treating. Cic. Italiam contra, over against Haly. Verg. Corpus in Acacidae, into the body of Acacides. Verg.

2. For cum appended to an Ablative, see 184, 6; 187, 2.

3. Genitives, adverbs, and a few other words sometimes stand between the preposition and its case. In adjurations per is usually separated from its case by the Accusative of the object adjured, or by some other word; and sometimes the verb  $\dot{e}r\dot{v}$  is omitted:

Post Alexandrī māgnī mortem, after the death of Alexander the Great. Cic. Ad beno vivendum, for living well. Cic. Per ego hās lacrimās tö örō, I implore you by these tears. Verg. Per ego võs deōs (= per deōs ego võs örō), I pray you in the name of the gods. Curt.

- III. Conjunctions and Relatives, when they introduce clauses, generally stand at the beginning of such clauses; but autem, enim, quidem, quoque, vērē, and generally igitur, follow some other word:
  - SI peccavi, ignosce, if I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Ii qui superiores

sunt, those who are superior. Cic. lpse autem omnia videbat, but he himself saw all things. Cic.

1.  $\Lambda$  conjunction may follow a relative or an emphatic word, and a relative may follow an emphatic word  $\dot{}$ 

Id ut audivit, as he heard this. Nep. Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. Tröjae qui primus ab oris venit, who came first from the shores of Troy. Verg.

NOTE.—Certain conjunctions, as et, nec, sed, and even aut and vel, are more frequently removed from the beginning of the clause in poetry than in prose:

Compressus et omnis impetus, and all riolence was checked. Verg.

2. Ne-quidem takes the emphatic word or words between the two parts:

No in oppidis quidem, not even in the towns. Cic.

3. Quidem often follows pronouns, superlatives, and ordinals:

Ex me quidem nihil audiet, from me indeed he will hear nothing. Cic.

4. Que, ve, ne, introducing a clause or phrase, are generally appended to the first word; but if that word is a preposition, they are often appended to the next word:

In foroque, and in the forum. Cic. Inter nosque, and among us. Cic.

IV. Non, when it qualifies some single word, stands directly before that word; but when it is particularly emphatic, or qualifies the entire clause, it sometimes stands at the beginning of the clause, and sometimes before the finite verb or before the auxiliary of a compound tense:

Hae villa carere non possunt, they are not able to do without this villa. Cic. Non fuit Juppiter metuendus, Jupiter was not to be feared. Cic. Fas non putant, they do not think it right. Cic. Pecunia soluta non est, the money has not been paid. Cic.

1. In general, in negative clauses the negative word, whether particle, verb, or noun, is made prominent:

Negat quemquam posse, he denies that any one is able. Cic. Ninil est melius, nothing is better. Cic.

V. Inquam, sometimes  $\tilde{a}i\tilde{o}$ , introducing a quotation, follows one or more of the words quoted. The subject, if expressed, generally follows its verb:

Nihil, inquit Brūtus, quod dīcam,  $nothing\ which\ I\ shall\ state,\ said\ Brutus.$  Cic.

VI. The Vocative rarely stands at the beginning of a sentence. It usually follows an emphatic word:

Perge, Lacli, proceed, Laclius. Cic.

#### II. ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

570. Clauses connected by coördinate conjunctions (554) follow each other in the natural order of the thought, as in English:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, the sun hastèns to its setting, and the mountains are shaded. Verg. Gỹgès à nullo videbatur, ipse antem omnia videbat, Gygas was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things. Cic.

571. A clause used as the Subject of a complex sentence (348) generally stands at the *beginning* of the sentence, and a clause used as the Predicate at the *end*:

Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day may bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Exitus fuit orationis, sibi nullam cum his anneitiam case, the close of the oration was, that he had no friendship with these men. Caes.

1. This arrangement is the same as that of the simple sentence; see 560.

Emphasis and enphony often have the same effect upon the arrangement of clanses as upon the arrangement of words; see 561.

572. Clauses used as the Subordinate Elements of complex sentences admit three different arrangements:

I. They are generally inserted within the principal clause, like the subordinate elements of a simple sentence:

Hostes, ubi primum nostres equites conspexerunt, celeriter nostres perturbăverunt, the enemy, as soon as they saw our caralry, quickly put our men to rout. Caes. Sententia, quae tütissima videbătur, vieit, the opinion which seemed the safest prevailed. Liv.

II. They are often placed before the principal clause:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are quiet, they approve. Cic. Qualis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic.

Note.—This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause either refers back to the preceding sentence, or is preparatory to the thought of the principal clause. Hence temporal, conditional, and concessive clauses often precede the principal clause. Hence also, in sentences composed of correlative clauses with is—qui, tālis—quillis, tantus—quantus, tum—cum, ita—ut, etc., the relative member, i. e., the clause with 'qui, quālis, quantus, cum, ut, etc., generally precedes.

III. They sometimes follow the principal clause:

Entitur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Cic. Sol efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom. Cic.

Note.—This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause is either intimately connected in thought with the following sentence, or explanatory of the principal clause. Hence, clauses of *Purpose* and *Result* generally follow the principal clause, as in the examples.

573. LATIN PERIODS.—A complex sentence in which two or more subordinate clauses are inserted within the principal clause is called a Period in the strict sense of the term.

NOTE 1.—The examples given under 572, 1, are short and simple examples of Latin Periods.

Note 2.—Many Latin periods consist of several carefully constructed clauses so united as to form one complete harmonious whole. For examples, see Cicero's Third Oration against Catiline, XII., 'Sed quoniam . . . providere'; also Llvy, I., 6, 'Numitor, interprimum . . . ostendit.'

Note 3.—In a freer sense the term *Period* is sometimes applied to all complex sentences which end with principal clauses. In this sense the examples given under 572, II., are *Periods*. Many carefully elaborated Latin sentences are constructed in this way; see Cicero's Oration for the Poet Archias, I., 'Quod si hace . . . debūmus'; also the First Oration against Catiline, XIII., 'Ut saepe homines . . . ingravesect.'

## PART FOURTH.

## PROSODY.

574. Prosody treats of Quantity and Versification.

## CHAPTER I.

## QUANTITY.

**575.** The time occupied in pronouncing a syllable in poetry is called its quantity.\(^1\) Syllables are accordingly characterized as long, short, or common.\(^2\)

## I. GENERAL RULES OF QUANTITY.

576. A syllable is Long in Quantity—

I. If it contains a Diphthong, or is the result of Contraction:

hace, foedus, aura; cōgō (for coigō), occīdō (for occaedō), nīl (for nihil).

1. Prae in composition is usually short before a yowel: praeacūtus.

II. If its vowel is followed by J. X. or Z. or any Two Consonants except a mute and a liquid:

mājor, dux, servus, sunt, regunt, rēgnum, agmen.

 But one or both of the consonants must belong to the same word as the vowel: ab<sup>4</sup> side, per<sup>4</sup> size.

Note 1.—II has no tendency in combination with any consonant to lengthen a prereding syllable. Hence in such words as Achaeus, Athenae, the first syllable is short.

Note 2.—In the early poets a short final syllable ending in s remained short before a word beginning with a consonant; sometimes also short final syllables ending in other consonants; imaginis formam, enim vērā, crat dietā,5

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In many cases the quantity of syllables may be best learned from the Dictionary, but in others the student may be greatly aided by certain general statements or rules.

<sup>2</sup> That is, sometimes long and sometimes short.

<sup>3</sup> Here the syllable is long by nature if the vowel is long, but long only by position if the vowel is short. For the quantity of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant, see 651.

<sup>4</sup> Here ab becomes long before s in scale, and per before s in sava.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Here the syllables is, im, and at remain short,

Note 3.—In the early poets many syllables long by position in the Augustan poets are sometimes short, as the first syllable of ecce, ergō, ille, inter, omnis, unde, uxor.

Note 4.—A final syllable ending in a vowel is occasionally, though rarely, lengthened by consonants at the beginning of the following word.

Note 5.—In Greek words a syllable with a vowel before a mute and a nasal is sometimes short: cycnus, Tecnessat.

2. In the compounds of jugum, the syllable before j is short: bijugus.

577. A syllable is Short in Quantity if its vowel is followed in the same word by another Vowel, by a Diphthong, or by the aspirate H:

dies, doceo, viae, nihil.

- I. The following vowels, with the syllables which contain them, are long by Exception:
- A—(1) in the Genitive ending āi of Dec. I.: audāi; (2) in proper names in āius: Gāius (Gājus); (3) before ia, ic, io, iu, in the verb āiō.
- 2. E—(1) in the ending ēī of Dec. V. when preceded by a vowel: diēī; and sometimes when preceded by a consonant: fidēī, rēū; often in the Dative Singular of the pronoun is: ĕū; (2) in proper names in ēius: Pompēius; (3) in ēhen, and in Rhēa.¹
- 3. **I**—(1) in the verb  $f\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}$ , when not followed by  $er: f\bar{\imath}am$ ,  $f\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}bam$ , but  $\hat{f}er\bar{\imath}$ ; (2) in  $d\bar{\imath}us$ , a, um (for  $d\bar{\imath}vus$ , a, um); (3) generally in the Genitive ending  $\bar{\imath}us: u\bar{\imath}us$ ,  $ill\bar{\imath}us$ ; (4) sometimes in  $D\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}ua$ .
  - O—sometimes in \(\tilde{\rho}h\tilde{\rho}\).
- In Greek words vowels are often long before a vowel, because long in the original: āēr, Acnēās, Brīsēis, Menelāus, Trōes.

Note.—This often occurs in proper names in éa. ia. éus, ius, aon, ion, ais, ois, bius: Médéa, Alexandria, Pêneus, Dûrius, Oriôn.

578. A syllable is Common in Quantity if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid:

ager, agri; pater, patris; duplex, triplex.

Note 1.—A syllable ending in a mute in the first part of a compound before a liquid at the beginning of the second part is long; ab-rumpô, ob-rugô.

Note 2.-In Plantus and Terence a syllable with a short vowel before a mute and a liquid is short.

### II. QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

## 579. Monosyllables are long:

á, đã, tê, sẽ, đẽ, sĩ, quĩ, đỡ, prō, tũ, đôs, pẽs, sĩs, bōs, sũs, pấr, sõl.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The name of the daughter of Numitor, and of a priestess in Vergil. In Rhea, another name for Cybele, the e is short.

<sup>3</sup> Sometimes fieri in Plautus and Terence.

- I. The following are short by Exception:
- 1. Enclitics: que, ve, ne, cc, tc, psc, pte.
- 2. Monosyllables in b, d, l, m, t: ab, ad, fel, sum, et; except sāl, sōl.
- 3. An, bis, cis, cor, cs, fuc, fer, in, is, nec, os (ossis), per, ter, qua (indefinite), quis, vir, vas (vadis), and sometimes hie and hoe in the Nominative and Accusative.
  - 580. In words of more than one syllable—
- I. The final vowels i, o, and u are long; a, e, and y, short:

mari, audī, servō, omninō, fruetu, cornu; via, maria, mare, misy.

II. Final syllables in **c** are long; in **d**, **l**, **m**, **n**, **r**, **t**, short: ālēc, illūc; illud, cōnsul, amem, carmen, amor, caput.

Note 1.—Dônec and liên are exceptions.

Note 2.—Final syllables in n and r are long in many Greek words which end long in the original: as  $Tit\bar{t}r$ ,  $Anch\bar{s}s\bar{e}n$ ,  $Hym\bar{e}n$ ,  $Delph\bar{t}n$ ,  $\bar{a}\bar{e}r$ ,  $aeth\bar{e}r$ ,  $cr\bar{a}t\bar{e}r$ .

III. The final syllables as, es, and os are long; is, us, ys, short:

amās, mēnsās, monēs, nūbēs, servos; avis, urbis, bonus, ehlamys.

Note 1.—The learner will remember that short final syllables like is, us, etc., may be lengthened by being placed before a word beginning with a consonant; see 576, 11.

Note 2.—Plautus retains the original quantity of many final syllables usually short in the Augustan age. Thus the endings  $\vec{a}$ ,  $\vec{e}$ ,  $\vec{a}t$ ,  $\vec{a}t$ ,  $\vec{o}r$ ,  $\vec{i}s$ ,  $\vec{a}s$ ,  $\vec{a}t$ ,  $\vec{c}t$ ,  $\vec{c}t$ , often stand in place of the later endings a, e, at, ar, or, is, us, at, et, it (21). Some of these early forms are retained by Terence, and some of them occasionally occur in the Augustan poets.

Note 3.—Plantus and Terence, in consequence of the colloquial character of comedy, often shorten unaccented final syllables after an accented short syllable: ama, abi, dedi, domi, domo, vivo, pedes.

Note 4.—In Plantus and Terence the doubling of a letter does not usually affect the quantity of the syllable:  $\mathcal{U}$  in ille, mm in  $imm\tilde{o}, pp$  in  $opport\tilde{u}n\tilde{e}$ .

- 581. Numerous exceptions to the general rule for the quantity of final syllables occur even in classical Latin:
  - I. I final, usually long, is sometimes short or common—
- 1. Short in nisi, quasi, cui (when a dissyllable), and in the Greek ending si of the Dative and Ablative Plural.
- 2. Common in  $mih\bar{i}$ ,  $tib\bar{i}$ ,  $sib\bar{i}$ ,  $ib\bar{i}$ ,  $ub\bar{i}$ , and in the Dative and Vocative Singular of some Greek words.
  - II. O final, usually long, is short-
- 1. In duo, ego, octo, eho, in the adverbs cito, ilico, modo, and its compounds, dummodo, quōmodo, etc., in cedo, and in the old form endo.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> U is short in indu and něnu. Contracted syllables are long, according to 576, I.

- 2. Sometimes (1) in nouns of Dec. III. and (2) in verbs, though very rarely in the best poets.
  - III. A final, usually suort, is LONG-
  - 1. In the Ablative: mēnsā, bonā, illā.
  - In the Vocative of Greek nouns in ās: Aenēā, Pallā.
- In Verbs and Partieles: amā, cūrā; circā, juxtā, anteā, frustrā. Except ita, quia, ēja, hēja, and puta used adverbially.
  - IV. E final, usually short, is LONG-
- In Dec. I. and V.,<sup>2</sup> and in Greek plurals of Dec. III.; epitomē; rē, diē; tempē, melē.
  - 2. Generally in the Dative ending  $\tilde{e}$  of Dec. III.:  $aer\tilde{e} = aer\tilde{i}$ .
- In the Singular Imperative Active of Conj. II.: monē, docē. But e is sometimes short in cavē, vidē, etc.<sup>3</sup>
- In ferē, fermē, ôhē, and in adverbs from adjectives of Dec. II.: dôctē, rēcte. Except bene, male, înferne, interne, superne.
  - V. As final, usually LONG, is SHORT-
  - 1. In anas and in a few Greek nouns in as: Areas, lampas.
  - 2. In Greek Accusatives of Dec. III.: Arcadas, heroas.
  - VI. Es final, usually LONG, is SHORT-
- 1. In Nominatives Singular of Dec. III. with short increment (582) in the Genitive: mīles (itis), obses (idis), interpres (etis). Except ahiēs, ariēs, pariēs, Cerēs, and compounds of pēs, as bipēs, tripēs, etc.
  - 2. In penes and the compounds of es, as ades, potes.
- 3. In Greek words—(1) in the plural of those which increase in the Genitive: Arcades, Trōudes; (2) in a few neuters in es: Hippomenes; (3) in a few Vocatives Singular: Dēmosthenes.
  - VII. Os final, usually LONG, is SHORT-
  - 1. In compos, impos, exos.
  - 2. In Greek words with the ending short in the Greek: Delos, melos.
  - VIII. Is final, usually short, is LONG-
  - 1. In plural eases: mēnsīs, servīs, rôhīs. Hence forīs, grātīs, ingrātīs.
- In Nominatives of Dec. III. increasing long in the Genitive: Quiris (itis), Salamis (inis).
  - 3. In the Singular Present Indie. Act. of Conj. IV .: audis.

Note.—Māvīs,  $qu\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}s$ ,  $uterv\bar{\imath}s$ , follow the quantity of  $v\bar{\imath}s$ .

4. In the Singular Present Subj. Act.: possīs, velīs, nölīs, mālīs.

Sometimes in the Vocative of Greek nouns in as and es.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Hence, in the compounds, hodie, pridie, postridie, quare.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> In the comic poets many dissyllable Imperatives with a short penult shorten the ultimate: as habe, jube, mane, move, tace, tene, etc.

 Sometimes in the Singular of the Future Perfect and of the Perfect Subjunctive: amāverīs, docuerīs.

IX. Us final, usually short, is LONG-

 In Nominatives of Dec. III. increasing long in the Genitive: virtūs (ūtis), tellūs (ūris).

Note.—But palus (u short) occurs in Horace, Ars Poētica, 65.

- 2. In Dec. IV., in the Genitive Singular, and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural: frūctūs.
  - In Greek words ending long in the original: Punthus, Sapphus, tripus. Note.—But we have Oedipus and põlupus.

#### III. QUANTITY IN INCREMENTS.

- 582. A word is said to *increase* in declension, when it has in any case more syllables than in the Nominative Singular, and to have as many *increments of declension* as it has additional syllables: sermö, sermönis, sermönibus.<sup>1</sup>
- 583. A verb is said to *increase* in conjugation, when it has in any part more syllables than in the second person singular of the Present Indicative Active, and to have as many *increments of conjugation* as it has additional syllables: *amās, amātīs, amābātīs.*<sup>2</sup>
- 584. If there is but one increment, it is uniformly the penult; if there are more than one, they are the penult with the requisite number of syllables before it. The increment nearest the beginning of the word is called the *first* increment, and those following this are called successively the *second*, third, and fourth increments.<sup>3</sup>

## Increments of Declension.

## 585. In the Increments of Declension, a and o are long; e, i, u, and y, short:

aetās, aetātis, aetātibus; sermō, sermōnis; puer, puerī, puerōrum; fulgur, fulguris; chlamys, chlamydis; bonus, bonārum, bonōrum; ille, illārum, illōrum; miser, miserī; supplex, supplicis; satur, šaturī.

I. A, usually long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment—5

<sup>2</sup> Amātis has one increment, amābātis two.

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  Sermõnis, having one syllable more than sermõ, has one increment, while sermõnibus has two increments.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> In  $ser-m\tilde{o}n-i-bus$ , the first increment is  $m\tilde{o}n$ , the second i; and in  $mon-u-e-r\tilde{u}-mus$ , the first is u, the second e, the third  $r\tilde{u}$ .

 $<sup>^4\,</sup>$  Y occurs only in Greek words, and is long in the increments of nouns in yn and of a few others,

Observe that the exceptions belong to the first increment.

- 1. Of masculines in al and ar: Hannibal, Hannibalis: Caesar, Caesaris.
- 2. Of nouns in s preceded by a consonant; daps, dapis; Arabs, Arabis; hiems, hiemis.
  - 3. Of Greek nouns in a and as : poema, poematis : Pallas, Palladis.
- Of (1) baccar, hēpar, jubar, lār, nectur, pār, and its compounds; (2) anas, mās, ras (vadis); (3) sāl, fax, and a few rare Greek words in ax.
- II. O, usually long in the increments of declension, is smort in the first increment— $^{1}$
- Of Neuters in Declension III.: aequor, aequoris; tempus, temporis. Except \(\tilde{\delta}\) (\(\tilde{\delta}\)) ador (ad\(\tilde{\delta}\)), and comparatives.
- Of words in s preceded by a consonant: inops, inopis. Except Cyclops and hydrops.
- 3. Of arbor, bos, lepus; compos, impos, memor, immemor; Allobrox, Cappadox, praccox.
  - 4. Of most Patrials : Mucedo, Macedonis.
- 5. Of many Greek nouns—(1) those in ōr: rlōtōr, Hectōr; (2) many in ō and ōn increasing short in Greek: avdōn, avdonis; (3) in Greek compounds in pūs or pus: tripūs (odis), Oedipus.
- III. E, usually short in the increments of declension, is LONG in the first increment-
- Of Declension V.: diei, dierum, diehus, rehus. But in the Genitive and Dative Singular sometimes short after a consonant: fidei, spēi.
- 2. Of nouns in en, mostly Greek: lien, lienis; Siren, Sirenis. So Anio, Anienis.
- 3. Of Celtiber, Ther, ver, heres, locupies, merces, quies, inquies, requies, plebs, lex, rex, âlec, âlex, vervex.
- 4. Of a few Greek words in és and èr: lebès, lebitis; crăter, crăteris. Except âer and aethèr.
- IV. I, usually snort in the increments of declension, is lose in the first increment—
  - 1. Of most words in ix: rādic, rādicis; fēlix, fēlicis.2
  - 2. Of dis, glis, lis, vis, Quiris, Samnis.
  - 3. Of delphin, and a few rare Greek words.

Note.-For quantity of i in the ending ins, see 577. 3.

- V. U, usually short in the increments of declension, is loss in the first increment-
- Of nouns in ūs with the Genitive in ūris, ūtis, ūtis; jūs, jūris; salūs, salūtis; palūs, palūdis.<sup>3</sup>
  - 2. Of für, früx, lüx, plüs, Pollüx.
  - 1 See p 342, foot-note 5
- 2 But short in appendix, calix, Cilix, filix, fornix, nix, pix, salix, strix, and a few others, chiefly proper names.
  - 3 But short in intercus, Ligus, pecus,

## Increments of Conjugation.

# 586. In the Increments of Conjugation (583), a, e, and o are long; i and u short:

amāmus, amēmus, amātote; regimus, sumus.

Note 1.—In ascertaining the increments of the irregular verbs,  $fer\tilde{o}$ ,  $rol\tilde{o}$ , and their compounds, the full form of the second person, feris, rolis, etc., must be used. Thus in  $fer\tilde{c}bum$  and  $rol\tilde{c}bum$ , the increments are  $r\tilde{e}$  and  $l\tilde{c}$ .

Note 2.—In ascertaining the increments of reduplicated forms (255, I.), the reduplication is not counted. Thus dedimus has but one increment, di.

- I. **A**, usually loss in the increments of conjugation, is short in the first increment of  $d\bar{\sigma}$ : dare, dabam, circumdabam.
  - II. E, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is short before r—
- In the tenses in ram, rim, rō: amāveram, amāverim, amāverō; rēxerat, rēx rit.
- 2. In the first increment of the Present and Imperfect of Conjugation III.: regere, regeris, regerem, regerer.
  - 3. In the Future ending beris, bere: amaheris or -ere, moneberis.
- 4. Rarely in the Perfect ending erunt: steterunt for steterunt; see 236, note: also Systole, 608, VI.
- III. I, usually snort in the increments of conjugation, is LONG, except before a vowel-
- 1. In the first increment of Conjugation IV., except imus of the Perfect: audir, audiri, auditum; sentire, sentimus; sensimus (Perfect).
- 2. In Conjugation III., in the first increment of Perfects and Supines in ivi and itum (278), and of the parts derived from them (except imus of the Perfect: tricimus): cupīvī, cupīverat, cupītus; petīvī, petītus; capessīvī, capessītūras. Gāvīsus from gaudeō follows the same analogy.
- 3. In the endings *īmus* and *ītis* of the Present Subjunctive: *sīmus*, *sītis*; velīmus, velītis (240, 3).
- 4. In nölīte, nölītō, nölītōte, and in the different persons of ībam, ībō, from eō (295).
- 5. Sometimes in the endings rimus and ritis of the Future Perfect and Perfect Subjunctive: amaverimus, amaveritis.
- IV. U, usually snort in the increments of conjugation, is long in the Supine and the parts formed from it: volūtum, volūtūrus, amātūrus.

### IV. QUANTITY OF DERIVATIVE ENDINGS.

- 587. The most important derivative endings may be classified according to quantity as follows:
  - I. Derivative endings with a Long Penult:
  - 1. ābrum, ācrum, ātrum:

fläbrum, simuläerum, arätrum.

2. ēdő, īdő, ūdő; āgő, īgő, ūgő:

dulcēdő, cupīdő, sölitūdő; vorāgő, orīgő, aerūgő.

3. āis, ēis, ōis, ōtis, īnē, ōnē—in patronymics: 1

Ptolemāis, Chryseis, Mīnois, Īcariotis, Nērīnē, Acrisionē.

4. ēla, īle; ālis, ēlis, ūlis;

querēla, ovīle; mortālis, fidēlis, curūlis.

5. ānus, ēnus, ōnus, ūnus; āna, ēna, ōna, ūna:

urbānus, egēnus, patronus, tribūnus; membrāna, habēna, annona, lacūna.

6. āris, ārus; ōrus, ōsus; āvus, īvus:

salūtāris, avārus; canorus, animosus; octāvus, aestīvus.

7. ātus, ētus, ītus, ōtus, ūtus; ātim, ītim, ūtim; ētum, ēta:2

ālātus, facētus, turrītus, aegrōtus, cornūtus; singulātim, virītim, tribūtim; quercētum, monēta.

8. ēnī, īnī, ōnī—in distributives:

septění, quini, octoní.

II. Derivative endings with a Short Penult-

1. adēs, iadēs, idēs—in patronymics:3

Aenēadēs, Lāertiadēs, Tantalidēs.

2. iacus, icus, idus:4

Corinthiaeus, modieus, cupidus.

3. olus, ola, olum; ulus, ula, ulum; culus, cula, culum—in diminutives:

filiolus, filiola, atriolum; hortulus, virgula, oppidulum; flōsculus, particula, mūnusculum.

4. etās, itās—in nouns; iter, itus—in adverbs: pietās, vēritās; fortiter, dīvīnitus,

5. ātilis, ilis, bilis—in verbals; inus—in adjectives denoting material or time: 5

versātilis, docilis, amābilis; adamantinus, cedrinus, crāstinus, diūtinus.

Note 1.—Ilis in adjectives from nouns usually has the penult long: cirilis, hostilis, puerilis, ririlis.

Note 2.—Inus denoting characteristic (330) usually has the penult long: caninus, equinus, marinus.

<sup>1</sup> Except Danais, Phocais, Thebais, Nereis.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Except (1) anhilitus, fortuitus, grātuitus, hālitus, hospitus, spiritus; (2) adfatim, statim, and adverbs in itus, as divinitus; and (3) participles provided for by 586.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Except (1) those in idės from nouns in eus and is: as, Pėlidės (Pėleus), Neo-clidės (Neoclės); and (2) Amphiarūidės, Amyetidės, Bėlidės, Coronidės, Lycūrgidės.

<sup>4</sup> Except amicus, anticus, apricus, mendicus, posticus, pudicus.

<sup>5</sup> Except matatinus, repentinus, respertinus.

- III. Derivative endings with a Long Antepenult:
- 1. āceus, ūceus, āneus, ārius, ārium, ōrius: rosāceus, pannūceus, subitāneus, cibārius, columbārium, cēns**ōrius.**
- 2. ābundus, ācundus; ābilis, ātilis, āticus: mīrābundus, īrācundus; amābilis, versātilis, aquāticus.
- 3. **āgintā**, **īgintī**, **ēsimus**—*in numerals:* nōnāgintā, vīgintī, centēsimus.
- imōnia, imōnium; tōrius, sōrius; tōria, tōrium: querimōnia, alimōnium; amātōrius, cēnsōrius; vīetōria, audītōrium.

IV. Derivative endings with a Short Antepenult:

- 1. ibilis, itūdŏ, olentus, ulentus: crēdibilis, sōlitūdŏ, vīnolentus, opulentus.
- uriō—in desideratives:
   ēsuriō, ēmpturiō, parturiō.

### V. QUANTITY OF STEM-SYLLABLES.

588. All simple verbs in  $i\bar{o}$  of the Third Conjugation (217) have the stem-syllable 'short:

capio, cupio, facio, fodio, fugio.

589. Most verbs which form the Perfect in  $u\bar{\imath}$  have the stemsyllable short:

domō, secō habeō, moneō, alō, colō.

Note.—Pônő, dēbeő, floreő, pāreő, and several inceptive verbs, are exceptions.

590. Dissyllable Perfects and Supines have the first syllable long, unless short by position:

juvo, jūvī, jūtum; foveo, fovī, fotum.

1. Eight Perfects and ten Supines have the first syllable short:

bibī, dedī, fidī, liquī,² scidī, stetī, stitī, tulī; citum, datum, itum, litum, quitum, ratum, rutum, satum, situm, statum.²

591. Trisy!labic Reduplicated Perfects have the first two syllables short;

cado, cecidí; cano, ceciní; disco, didicí.

Note 1.—Caedō has cecīdī in distinction from cecidī from cadō.

Note 2.—The second syllable may be made long by position; cucurri, momordi.

592. In general, inflected forms retain the quantity of stem-syllables unchanged: <sup>3</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> That is, the syllable preceding the characteristic.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Liquī from liqueō; linquō has līquī. Statum from sistō; stō has stātum.

<sup>8</sup> But see Dissyllabic Perfects and Supines, 590.

avis, avem; nūbēs, nūbium; levis, levior, levissimus; moneō, monēbam, monuī.

Note 1.—Position may, however, affect the quantity: ager, agrī; possum, potuī; solvē, solūtum; volvē, rolūtum,

Note 2.—Gignō gives genuī, genitum, and pono, posuī, positum.

## 593. Derivatives generally retain the quantity of the stem-syllables of their primitives:

bonus, bonitās; timco, timor; animus, animosus; cīvis, cīviens; cūra, curo.

1. Words formed from the same root sometimes show a variation in the quantity of stem-syllables:

dieō,	dicō,	persono,	persona,
dux, ducis,	dűcő,	rego,	rēx, rēgis, rēgula,
fidēs,	fidō,	seens,	sēcius,
homő,	hūmānus,	sedeő,	sēdēs, sēdulus,
lateō,	lāterna,	serō,	semen,
legō,	lêx, lēgis,	sopor,	sopio,
macer,	mācero,	suspicor,	suspīciō,
moveo,	mõbilis,	tegō,	tēgula,
nota,	nôtum,	vadum,	vādō,
odium,	ŏdī,	voco,	võx, võeis.

Note 1.—This change of quantity in some instances is the result of contraction, as movibilis, mobilis, mobilis, and in others it serves to distinguish words of the same orthography, as the verbs legis, legis, regis, regis, sedės, from the nouns lėgis, lėgės, ryjis, rėgės, sėdės, or the verbs dūcis, dūcis, fidės, from the nouns ducis, ducis, fida.

Note 2.—A few derivatives shorten the long vowel of the primitive: ācer, acerbus; liceō, lucerna; mōlēs, molestus.

## 594. Compounds generally retain the quantity of their elements: ante-fero, de-fero, de-duco, in-acqualis, pro-duco.

- 1. The change of a vowel or diphthong does not affect the quantity:
- dè-ligô (legō), oe-cidô (cadō), oe-cidô (caedō).
- 2. The Inseparable Prepositions di,  $s\bar{e}$ , and  $r\bar{r}$  are long, re short; ne sometimes long and sometimes short:

diduco, seduco, vecors, reduco; nedum, nefas:

Note 1.-Di is short in dirimo and discrtus.

Note 2.—Ne is long in nedum, nemo, nequam, nequaquam, nequaquam, neguitia, and nece. In other words it is short.

Note 3.—Re is sometimes lengthened in a few words:  $r\tilde{e}ligi\tilde{o}$ ,  $r\tilde{e}liquiae$ ,  $r\tilde{e}perit$ ,  $r\tilde{e}pulit$ ,  $r\tilde{e}tulit$ , etc.

- 3. In a few words the quantity of the second element is changed. Thus— Jūro gives -jero; notus, -nitus; nūbo, -nubu; de-jero, cog-nitus, pro-nuba.
- Prae in composition is usually short before a vowel: praeacatus, praeastus.
  - 5. Pro is short in the following words:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Here the first syllable is short in ager, but common in ager (578); long in possum, solvo, volvo (576, 11.), but short in potui, solvitum, and colutum.

procella, procul, profūnus, profūrī, profectō, profestus, proficiscor, profitcor, profugus, profugus, profundus, pronepōs, proneptis, protervus, and in most Greek words, as prophēta; generally also in profundo, propūgo, propūgo, propūno, rarely in procūro, propello.

6. At the end of a verbal stem compounded with  $faci\bar{o}$  or  $f\bar{\iota}\bar{o}$ , e is generally short:

ealefació, calefão, labefació, patefació.

- 7. I is usually long in the first part of the compounds of dies: meridies, pridie, postridie, cotidie, triduum.
- 8. O is long in contrō-, intrō-, retrō-, and quandō- in composition: contrōversia, intrōdūcō, retrōvertō, quandōque; but quandōquidem.
- 9. The quantity of the final i in  $ib\tilde{i}$ ,  $ub\tilde{i}$ , and  $ut\tilde{i}$  is often changed in composition:

ibīdem, ibīque; ubīque, ubīnam, ubivīs, ubīcunque, necubi, sīcubi; utinam, utique, sīcuti.

10. Hodie, quasi, quoque, and siquidem have the first syllable short.

595. The Quantity of Stem-Syllables in cases not provided for by any rules now given will be best learned from the Dictionary. By far the larger number of such syllables will be found to be short. For convenience of reference, a list of the most important primitives with long stem-syllables is added:

ācer	<b>c</b> ēlō	dēlcō	fortūna	lēnis
adūlor	cēra	dicō (ere)	frētus	lētum
āēr	cicăda	dīrus	fūmus	liber (era, erum)
āla	cīvis	dīves	fūnis	lībō
ālea	elāmō	dīvus	funus	līlium
altāre	clārus	dōnee	füror (ārī)	līmen
amārus	clāvus	donum	glēba	līmes
ancīle	clēmēns	dūcō	gloria	līnum
anhēlus	elīvus	dūdum	grämen	līveō
antīquus	codex	dűrns	grātus	lōrum
āra	$c$ $\bar{o}mis$	extrēmus	hāmus	lūdō
ārea	como	fāgus	hērēs	lūgeō
āreō	conor	fāma	hērōs	lumen
āter	conus	fānum	hōra	lūna
avēna	<b>c</b> ŏpia	fārī	ĭeō	mālō
bīlis	eōram	fēcundus	imāgŏ	māne
brūma	corôna	fēlīx	inānis	mānēs
būbō	erātēr	fēmina	īra	mānō
cacumen	erātēs	fētus	jānua	mäter
eálīgő	erëber	fidō	jūcundus	mātū <b>rus</b>
camīnus	erēdō	fīgō	jūrō	měta
eānus	erīnis	fīlius	lābor (ī)	mētior
eāper	erūdus	fīlum	lämentum	mīles
carina	cūra	finis	lāna	mīror
cārus	cūria	flāvus	lātus (a, um)	mitis
eēdō (ere)	dēbeō	flümen	lēgō (āre)	mõlēs

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Including a few derivatives and compounds.

műgeő	ōtium	püber	sēdō	tõtus
munio	págus	půnió	serēnus	trūdō
mūnus	pálor	pūrus	sērus	ŭber
mūrus	pānis	quālis	sīdō	ūdus
můsa	pāreō	rādīx	sincērus	ūmeō
mūtō	penātēs	rādō	solo $r$	ūnus
mūtus	peritus	rāmus	sõlus	űrő
nāris	pilum	rārus	sopio	ŭtor
nāvis	pinus	rēmus	spica	ŭva
nīdus	plānus	rīdeō	spina	ũvidus
nitor (i)	plēnus	rīpa	spīrō	vādō
nodus	plūma	rītus	spūma	vānus
nonus	poēta	rīvus	squāleō	vātēs
nūbės	pomum	rōbur	stīpō	vělŏx
nūbō	pone	rodo	strāgēs	vēlum
nūdus	pōnō	rúga	strēnuus	vêna
nútō	pôtô	rūmor	strīdeō	venēnum
ölim	prätum	rupės	$s\bar{u}d\bar{o}$	vēnor
ōmen	prāvus	sanus	tābēs	vērus
opácus	primus	scālae	tālis	vīlis
opimus	prīvus	serībō	tēlum	vīnum
ôra	prômô	seutum	tēmõ	vivō
ōrō	prōra	sēdēs	tībia	

### CHAPTER II.

## VERSIFICATION.

#### SECTION I.

#### GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJECT.

- 596. Latin Versification is based upon QUANTITY. Syllables are combined into certain metrical groups called Feet, and feet, singly or in pairs, are combined into Verses.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Modern versification is based upon Accent. An English verse is a regular combination of accented and unaccented syllables, but a Latin verse is a similar combination of long and short syllables. The rhythmic accent or ictus (599) in Latin depends entirely upon quantity. Compare the following lines:

Tell' me	not', in	mourn'-ful	num'-bers
Life' is	but' an	emp'-ty	dream'.
Trū'-di-	tur' di-	ēs' di-	ē'.
	dés' et	in'-ge-	nī'.

Observe that in the English lines the accent or ictus falls upon the same syllables as in prose, while in the Latin it falls uniformly upon long syllables. On Latin Versification, see Ramsay's 'Latin Prosody'; Schmidt's 'Rhythmik und Metrik,' translated by Professor White; Christ's 'Metrik.'

has in general twice the value of a short syllable, and is indicated either by the sign—, or by a quarter note in music, . This unit of measure is also called a *time* or *mora*.

Note 1.—A long syllable is sometimes prolonged so as to have the value (1) of three short syllables, indicated by the sign  $\sqsubseteq$ , or  $\lrcorner$ .; or (2) of four short syllables, indicated by  $\sqsubseteq$ , or  $\lrcorner$ .

Note 2.—A long syllable is sometimes shortened so as to have the value of a short syllable, indicated by the sign >, or . A syllable thus used is said to have *irrational* time.

597. The feet of most frequent occurrence in the best Latin poets are—

#### I. FEET OF FOUR TIMES OR FOUR MORAE. one long and two short. Daetyl, carmina. Spondee, two long syllables, lêgês. II. FEET OF THREE TIMES OR THREE MORAE. Trochee,2 one long and one short, lėgis. one short and one long. Iambus. parens. three short syllables, Tribrach, dominus. NOTE 1 .- To these may be added the following: Pyrrbic. $\cup$ $\cup$ pater. Ditrochee, cîvitâtis. $- \cup - \cup$ Anapaest, $\cup$ $\cup$ bonitās. Dispondee, \_ \_ \_ \_ praeceptores. Bacchius. U - - $-- \cup \cup$ dolôrēs. Greater Ionic, sententia.

Note 2.—A Dipody is a group of two feet; a Tripody, of three; a Tetrapody, of four, etc. A Trihemimeris is a group of three half feet, i. e., a foot and a half; a Penthemimeris, of two and a half; a Hephthemimeris, of three and a half, etc.

Lesser Ionic.

Choriambus,

- - - ·

\_ \_ \_ \_

adolēscēns.

impatiens.3

598. Metrical Equivalents.—A long syllable may be resolved into two short syllables, as equivalent to it in quantity, or two short syllables may be contracted into a long syllable. The forms thus produced are metrical equivalents of the original feet.

Note.—Thus the Dactyl becomes a Spondee by contracting the two short syllables into one long syllable; the Spondee becomes a Dactyl by resolving the second syllable, or an Anapaest by resolving the first. Accordingly, the Dactyl, the Spondee, and the Anapaest are metrical equivalents. In like manner the Iambus, the Trochee, and the Tribrach are metrical equivalents.

\_ \_ \_

Diiambus,  $\smile - \smile -$ 

mīlitēs.

amoenitās.

Cretic,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See foot-note 1, p. 349.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Sometimes called Choree.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The feet here mentioned as having four syllables are only compounds of dissyllable feet. Thus the *Ditambus* is a double Iambus; the *Ditrochee*, a double Trochee; the *Drapondee*, a double Spondee; the *Greater Ionic*, a Spondee and a Pyrrhic; the *Lesser Ionic*, a Pyrrhic and a Spondee; the *Choriambus*, a Trochee (Choree) and an Iambus.

- 1. In certain kinds of verse admitting *irrational* time (596, 1, note 2), Spondees, Dactyls, and Anapaests are shortened to the time of a Trochee or of an lambus, and thus become metrical equivalents of each of these feet.
- 1) A Spondee used for a Trochec is called an Irrational Trochee, and is marked ->.
- 2) A Spondee used for an lambus is called an Irrational lambus, and is marked >-.
- 3) A Daetyl used for a Trochee is called a Cyclic Dactyl, and is marked
- 4) An Anapaest used for an lambus is called a Cyclic Anapaest, and is marked  $\smile \smile$ .
- 599. ICTUS OR RHYTHMIC ACCENT.—As in the pronunciation of a word one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called accent, so in the pronunciation of a metrical foot one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called Rhythmic Accent or Ictus.
- 1. Feet consisting of both long and short syllables have the ictus uniformly on the long syllables, unless used as equivalents for other feet

Note.—Thus the Dactyl and the Trochee have the ictus on the first syllable; the Anapaest and the lambus on the last.

2. Equivalents take the ietus of the feet for which they are used.

Note 1.—Thus the Spondee, when used for the Dactyl, takes the ictus of the Dactyl—i. e., on the first syllable; but when used for the Anapaest, it takes the ictus of the Anapaest—i. e., on the last syllable.

Note 2 - Feet consisting entirely of long or entirely of short syllables are generally used as equivalents, and are accented accordingly.

Note 3.—When two short syllables of an equivalent take the place of an accented long syllable of the original foot, the ictus properly belongs to both of these syllables, but is marked upon the first. Thus a Tribrach used for an Iambus is marked  $\smile \smile$ .

- 600. Arsis and Thesis.—The accented part of each foot is called the Arsis (raising), and the unaccented part, the Thesis (lowering).
- 601. Verses.—A verse is a line of poetry (596). It has one characteristic or fundamental foot, which determines the ictus for the whole verse.

Note 1.—Thus every dactylic verse has the ictus on the first syllable of each foot. because the Dactyl has the ictus on that syllable.

i Greek writers on versification originally used the terms  $\tilde{a}\rho\sigma\iota_{S}$  and  $\theta\epsilon\sigma\iota_{S}$  of raising and putting down the foot in marching or in beating time. Thus the Thesis was the accented part of the foot, and the Arsis the unaccented part. The Romans, however, applied the terms to raising and lowering the voice in reading. Thus Arsis ceme to mean the accented part of the foot, and Thesis the unaccented part. The terms have now been so long and so generally used in this sense that it is not deemed advisable to attempt to restore them to their original signification.

- Note 2.—Two verses sometimes unite and form a compound verse; see 628. X. Note 3 .- Metre means measure, and is variously used, sometimes designating the
- measure or quantity of syllables, and sometimes the foot or measure 1 of a verse.
- 602. Caesura or Caesural Pause.—Most Latin verses are divided metrically into two nearly equal parts, each of which forms a rhythmic series. The pause, however slight, which naturally separates these parts is called—
- 1. A Caesura, or a Caesural Pause, when it occurs within a foot: see 611.
- 2. A Diaeresis, when it occurs at the end of a foot; see 611, 2 and 3.

Note.—Some verses consist of three parts thus separated by caesura or diagresis, while some consist of a single rhythmic series.3

- 603. The full metrical name of a verse consists of three parts. The first designates the characteristic foot, the second gives the number of feet or measures, and the third shows whether the verse is complete or incomplete. Thus—
- 1. A Daetylic Hexameter Acatalectic is a dactylic verse of six feet (Hexameter), all of which are complete (Acatalectic).
- 2. A Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic is a trochaic verse of two measures (Dimeter), the last of which is incomplete (Catalectic).

Note 1.-A verse with a Dactyl as its characteristic foot is called Dactylic; with a Trochee, Trochaic; with an Jambus, Iambic, etc.

Note 2.—A verse consisting of one measure is called Monometer; of two, Dimeter; of three, Trimeter; of four, Tetrameter; of five, Pentameter; of six, Hexameter.

Note 3.- A verse which closes with a complete measure is called Acatalectic; 4 with an incomplete measure, Catalectic; 4 with an excess of syllables, Hypermetrical.4

Note 4.—The term Acatalectic is often omitted, as a verse may be assumed to be complete unless the opposite is stated.

Note 5.—A Cutalectic verse is said to be catalectic in syllabam, in disyllabum, or in trisyllabum, according as the incomplete foot has one, two, or three syllables.

Note 6.—Verses are sometimes briefly designated by the number of feet or measures which they contain. Thus Hexameter (six measures) sometimes designates the Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic, and Senarius (six feet), the Iambic Trimeter Acatalectic.

604. Verses are often designated by names derived from celebrated poets.

Note 1.—Thus Alcaic is derived from Alcaeus; Archilochian, from Archilochus; Sapphie, from Sapphō; Glyconic, from Glycon, etc.

In dactylic verses a measure is a single foot, but in trochaic and iambic verses it is a dipody or a pair of feet.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cacsūra (from caedo, to cut) means a cutting; it cuts or divides the foot and the verse into parts.

<sup>3</sup> A verse consisting of a single series is called Monocolon; of two, Dicolon; of three, Tricolon.

From the Greek ἀκατάληκτος, καταληκτικός, and ὑπέρμετρος.

- NOTE 2.—Verses sometimes receive a name from the kind of subjects to which they were applied: as Heroic, applied to heroic subjects; Puroemiac, to proverbs, etc.
- 605. The Final Syllable of a verse may generally be either long or short at the pleasure of the poet.
- 606. A Stanza is a combination of two or more verses of different metres into one metrical whole; see 631.

Note.—A stanza of two lines or verses is called a *Distich*; of three, a *Tristich*; of four, a *Tetrastich*,

607. RHYTHMICAL READING.—In reading Latin verse care must be taken to preserve the words unbroken, to show the quantity of the syllables, and to mark the poetical ietus.

Note.—Scanning consists in separating a poem or verse into the feet of which it is composed.<sup>1</sup>

- 608. Figures of Prosody.—The ancient poets sometimes allowed themselves, in the use of letters and syllables, certain liberties generally termed Figures of Prosody.
- I. ELISION.—A final vowel, a final diphthong, or a final m with the preceding vowel, is generally elided  $^2$  before a word beginning with a vowel or with h:

Mönstrum horrendum informe ingens, for Mönstrum horrendum informe ingens. Verg.

Note 1 .- For Exceptions, see Hintus, II., below.

Note 2.—Final e in the interrogative ne is sometimes dropped before a consonant:

Pyrrhīn' connūbia servās? for Pyrrhīne connūbia servās? Verg.

Note 3.—In the early poets final s is often dropped before consonants:

Ex omnibu' rēbus, for ex omnibus rēbus. Lucr.

Note 4.—The clision of a final m with the preceding vowel is sometimes called Eethlipsis.

Note 5.—The clision of a final vowel or diphthong, or of a final m with the preceding vowel, is sometimes called  $Synaloepha,^3$  or, if at the end of a line,  $Synapheia.^3$ 

- II. Hiatus.—A final vowel or diphthong is sometimes retained before a word beginning with a vowel. Thus—
- 1. The interjections  $\tilde{o}$ , heu, and  $pr\tilde{o}$  are not clided; see Verg., Acn., X., 15; Geor., H., 486.
- 2. Long vowels and diphthongs are sometimes retained, especially in the arsis of a foot; see Verg., Ec., III., 6; VII., 52.
- <sup>1</sup> In school this is sometimes done in a purely mechanical way, sacrificing words to feet; but even this mechanical process is often useful to the beginner, as it makes him familiar with the poetical ictus.
- <sup>2</sup> That is, partially suppressed. In reading, it should be lightly and indistinctly sounded, and blended with the following syllable, as in English poetry:
  - "The eternal years of God are hers."

From the Greek ἔκθλιψις, συναλοιφή, and συνάφεια.

Note 1.-This is most common in proper names.

Note 2.—Vergil employs this form of hiatus more freely than the other Latin poets, and yet the entire Aeneid furnishes only a short list of examples.

Note 3.—In the thesis a final long vowel or diphthong is sometimes shortened before a short yowel instead of being elided; see Verg., Aen., III., 211; VI., 507.

Note 4.—Hiatus with a short final vowel is rare, but occurs even in Vergil; see Aen., 1., 405; Ee., 11., 53.

III. Synaeresis.—Two syllables are sometimes contracted into one:

nurea, deinde, deineeps, ndem, nsdem, eaedem, prohibeat (pronounced probeat).

Note 1.—In the different parts of  $d\bar{e}sum$ ,  $\epsilon\bar{e}$  is generally pronounced as one syllable:  $d\bar{e}esse$ ,  $d\bar{e}est$ ,  $d\bar{e}erat$ ,  $d\bar{e}erat$ ,  $d\bar{e}erat$ , etc.; so  $e\bar{e}$  in the verb  $anteee\bar{e}$ : anteree, anteree, anteree, anteree, anteree, anteree, anteree.

Note 2.—I and u before vowels are sometimes used as consonants with the sound of y and w. Thus abiete and ariete become abyete and aryete; genua and tenues become genua and tenues.

Note 3.—In Plantus and Terence, Synaeresis is used with great freedom.

Note 4.—The contraction of two syllables into one is sometimes called Synizesis.

IV. Diaeresis.—In poetry, two syllables usually contracted into one are sometimes retained distinct:

aurāt foraurac, Orpheüs for Orpheūs, soluendus forsolvendus, silua forsilva.

Note.—Diagresis properly means the resolution of one syllable into two, but the Latin poets seldom, if ever, actually make two syllables out of one. The examples generally explained by diagresis are only ancient forms, used for effect or convenience.

V. Diastole.—A syllable usually short is sometimes long, especially in the arsis of a foot:

Prīamidēs for Priamidēs.

NOTE 1.—This poetic license occurs chiefly in proper names and in final syllables.

NOTE 2.—Vergil uses this license quite freely. He lengthens que in sixteen instances.

VI. Systole.—A syllable usually long is sometimes short:

tulerunt for tulerunt, steterunt for steterunt (236, note), vide'n for videsne.

 $\ensuremath{\text{Note}}.$  —This poetic license occurs most frequently in final vowels and diphthongs.

VII. Syncope.—An entire foot is sometimes occupied by a single long syllable; see 614.

#### SECTION II.

#### VARIETIES OF VERSE.

#### I. Dactylic Hexameter.

609. All Dactylic Verses consist of Dactyls and their metrical equivalents, Spondees. The ictus is on the first syllable of every foot.

**610.** The Dactylic Hexameter consists of six feet. The first four are either Dactyls or Spondees, the fifth a Dactyl, and the sixth a Spondee (605).<sup>2</sup> The scale is,<sup>3</sup>

Quadrupe- | dante pu- | trem soni- | tū quatit | ungula | campum. Verg. Arma vi- | rumque ca- | nō Trō- | jae quī | prīmns ab | ōrīs. Verg. Īnfan- | dum rē- | gīna ju- | bēs reno- | vāre do- | lōrem. Verg. lllī<sup>5</sup> in- | ter sē- | sē māg- | nā vī | bracehia | tollunt. Verg.<sup>6</sup>

- 1. The scale of dactylic hexameters admits sixteen varieties, produced by varying the relative number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees. Thus a verse may contain—
  - 1) Five Dactyls and one Spondee, as in the first example above.
  - 2) Four Dactyls and two Spondees, admitting four different arrangements.
  - 8) Three Dactyls and three Spondees, admitting six different arrangements.
  - 4) Two Duetyls and four Spondees, admitting four different arrangements.
  - 5) One Dactyl and five Spondees, as in the fourth example.
- 2. Effect of Dactyls.—Daetyls produce a rapid movement, and are adapted to lively subjects. Spondees produce a slow movement, and are adapted to grave subjects. But generally the best effect is produced in successive lines by variety in the number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees.
  - 3. Spondaic Line.—The Hexameter sometimes takes a Spondee in the
- <sup>1</sup> This is at once the most important and the most ancient of all the Greek and Roman metres. In Greece it attained its perfection in the poems of Homer. It was introduced into Italy in a somewhat imperfect form by the poet Ennius about the middle of the second century before Christ; but it was improved by Lucretius, Catullus, and others, until it attained great excellence in the works of the Augustan poets. The most beautiful and finished Latin Hexameters are found in the works of Ovid and Vergil.

<sup>2</sup> The Dactylic Hexameter in Latin is here treated as Acatalectic, as the Latin poets seem to have regarded the last foot as a genuine Spondee, thus making the measure complete. See Christ, 'Metrik der Griechen und Römer,' pp. 110, 164.

<sup>3</sup> In this scale the sign' marks the ictus (599), and —  $\longrightarrow$  denotes that the original Ductyl, marked —  $\smile$  o, may become by contraction a Spondee, marked — —, i. e., that a Spondee may be used for a Ductyl (598).

4 Expressed in musical characters, this scale is as follows:

## 962 | 962 | 962 | 972 | 99

The notation I means that, instead of the original measure II, the equivalent I may be used.

- <sup>6</sup> The final î of illî is elided; see 608, I.
- 6 With these lines of Vergil compare the following Hexameters from the Evangeline of Longfellow;
  - "This is the forest primeval; but where are the hearts that beneath it

    Leaped like the roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice of the huntsman?"

fifth place. It is then called Spondaic, and generally has a Dactyl as its fourth foot:

Căra de- | um sobo- | les mag- | num Jovis | incre- | mentum. Verg.

Note,—In Vergil, spondaic lines are used much more sparingly than in the earlier poets, and generally end in words of three or four syllables, as in incrementum above.

611. CAESURA, OR CAESURAL PAUSE.—The favorite caesural pause of the Hexameter is after the arsis, or in the thesis, of the third foot: 3

Armā- | tī ten- | dunt; || it | clāmor et | agmine | factō. Verg. Īnfan- | dum, rē- | gīna, || ju- | bēs reno- | vāre do- | lōrem, Verg.

Note.—In the first line, the caesural pause, marked  $\parallel$ , is after tendunt, after the arsis of the third foot; and in the second line after regina, in the thesis  $(na\ ju)$  of the third foot. The former is called the Masculine Caesura, the latter the Feminine Caesura  $^4$ 

1. The Caesural Pause is sometimes in the fourth foot, and then an additional pause is often introduced in the second:

Crēdide- | rim; | vēr | illud e- | rat, | vēr | māgnus a- | gēbat. Verg.

2. Becolic Diaeresis.—A pause called the *Bucolic Diaeresis*,<sup>5</sup> because originally used in the pastoral poetry of the Greeks, sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot:

Ingen- | tem eae- | lo soni- | tum dedit; | inde se- | catus. Very.

Note.—The  $\it Bucolie \, Diaeresis$  was avoided by the best Latin poets, even in treating pastoral subjects. Vergil, even in his Bucolies, uses it very sparingly.

3. A Diaeresis at the end of the third foot without any proper caesural pause is regarded as a blemish in the verse:

Pulveru- | lentus e- | quis furit; || omnes | arma re- | quirunt. Verg.

 $<sup>^3</sup>$  A single poem of Catulius, about half as long as a book of the Aeneid, contains more spondale lines than all the works of Vergil.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> But Vergil has two spondaic lines ending et māgnīs dīs; see Aen., III., 12, and VIII., 679.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> That is, the first rhythmic series ends at this point. This pause is always at the end of a word, and may be so very slight as in most cases not to interfere with the sense, even if no mark of punctuation is required; but the best verses are so constructed that the caesural pause coincides with a pause in the sense; see Christ, 'Metrik,' p. 184. According to some writers, the Dactylic Hexameter had its origin in the union of two earlier dactylic verses, and the caesural pause now marks the point of union; see Christ, p. 173.

<sup>4</sup> The Masculine Caesura is also called the Strong, or the Syllabic, Caesura, the Feminine the Weak, or the Trochaic, Caesura. Caesuras are often named from the place which they occupy in the line. Thus a caesura after the arsis of the second foot is called Trihemimeral; after the arsis of the third, Penthemimeral; after the arsis of the fourth, Hephthemimeral.

<sup>5</sup> Also called the Bucolic Caesura, as the term caesura is often made to include diacresis.

4. The ending of a word within a foot always produces a caesura. A line may therefore have several caesuras, but generally only one of these is marked by any perceptible pause:

Arma vi- | rumque ea- | nō, || Trō- | jae quī | primus ab | ōrīs. Verg.

Note.—Here there is a cassura in every foot except the last, but only one of these, that after canb, in the third foot, has the cassural pause.

5. The caesura, with or without the pause, is an important feature in every hexameter. A line without it is prosaic in the extreme:

Rōmae | moenia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armīs. Enn.

Note 1.—The Penthemimeral 2 caesura has great power to impart melody to the verse, but the best effect is produced when it is aided by other caesuras, as above.

Note 2.- A happy effect is often produced-

 By combining the feminine caesura in the third foot with the hephthemimeral and the trihemimeral;

Donec e- | ris fe- | fix, || mul- | tos nume- | rabis a- | micos. Very.

2) By combining the hephthemimeral with the trihemimeral:

Inde to- | ro pater | Aene- | as sie | orsus ab | alto. Verg.

Note 3.—The union of the feminine caesura with the trihemimeral, common in Greek, is somewhat rare in Latin, but it sometimes produces an harmonious verse:

Praecipi- | tat, sua- | dentque ca- | dentia | sīdera | sonmôs, Verg.

NOTE 4.—In the last two feet of the verse there should in general be no caesura whatever, unless it falls in the thesis of the fifth foot; but when that foot contains two entire words, a caesura is admissible after the arsis.

- 612. The ietus often falls upon unaccented syllables. Thus-
- 1. In the first, second, and fourth feet of the verse it falls sometimes upon *accented* and sometimes upon *unaccented* syllables; see examples under 610.
- 2. In the third foot it generally falls upon an unaccented syllable; see examples under 610.
- 3. In the fifth and sixth feet it generally falls upon accented syllables; see examples under 610.
- 613. The Last Word of the Hexameter is generally either a dissyllable or a trisyllable; see examples under 610 and 611.3

<sup>2</sup> See p. 356, foot-note 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The caesura with the pause is variously called the chief caesura, the caesura of the verse, the caesura of the rhythm, etc. In distinction from this any other caesura may be called a caesura, a caesura of the foot, or a minor caesura.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The learner should be informed that the nicctics of structure which belong to finished Latin hexameters must be sought only in the poems of Vergil and Ovid. The happiest disposition of caesuras, the best adjustment of the poetical ictus to the prose accent, and the most approved structure in the closing measures of the verse, can not be expected in the rade numbers of Ennius, in the scientific discussions of Lucretius, or even in the familiar Sattres of Horace. Those interested in the peculiarities of Latin hexameters in different writers will find a discussion of the subject in Lucian Müller's work, 'De remetrica poctarum Latinorum practer Plantum et Terentium libri septem.'

Note 1.—Spondaic lines are exceptions; see 610, 3, note.

NOTE 2.—Two monosyllables at the end of a line are not particularly objectionable, and sometimes even produce a happy effect:

Praecipi- | tant cu- | rae, || tur- | bataque | funere | mens est. Verg.

Note 3.—Est, even when not preceded by another monosyllable, may stand at the end of a line.

NOTE 4.—A single monosyllable, except est, is not often used at the end of the line, except for the purpose of emphasis or humor:

Parturi- | unt mon- | tes, || nas- | cetur | ridicu- | lus mus. Hor,

Note 5.—In Vergil, twenty-one lines, apparently hypermetrical (603, note 3), are supposed to clide a final vowel or a final em or um before the initial vowel of the next line; see Acn., I., 332; Geor., I., 295. See also 608, I., note 5.

#### II. OTHER DACTYLIC VERSES.

614. Dactylic Pentameter. —The Daetylic Pentameter consists of two parts separated by a diaeresis. Each part consists of two Dactyls and a long syllable. The Spondee may take the place of the Dactyl in the first part, but not in the second:

615. Elegiac Disticu.—The Elegiac Distich consists of the Hexameter followed by the Pentameter:

Sēmise | pulta vi- | rūm || cur- | vīs feri- | untur a- | rātrīs Ossa, ru- | īnō- | sās || occulit | herba do- | mūs. *Ovid*.

NOTE 1.—In reading the Elegiae Distich, the Pentameter, including pauses, should of course occupy the same time as the Hexameter.

Note 2.—Elegaic composition should be characterized by grace and elegance. Both members of the distich should be constructed in accordance with the most rigid rules of metre. The sense should be complete at the end of the couplet. Ovid furnishes us the best specimens of this style of composition.

616. The Dactylic Tetrameter is identical with the last four feet of the Hexameter:

Ībimus | ō soci- | ī, eomi- | tēsque. Hor.

<sup>2</sup> In musical characters:

Thus, in reading Pentameters, a pause may be introduced after the long syllable in the third foot, or that foot may be lengthened so as to fill the measure.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The name Pentameter is founded on the ancient division of the line into five feet; the first and second being Dactyls or Spondees, the third a Spondee, the fourth and fifth Anapaests.

Note.—In compound verses, as in the Greater Architochian, the tetrameter in composition with other metres has a Daetyl in the fourth place; see 628, X.

617. The DACTYLIC TRIMETER CATALECTIC is identical with the second half of the Dactylic Pentameter:

Arbori- | busque co- | mae. Hor.

Note.—The Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic is also known as the Lesser Architechian.

#### III. TROCHAIC VERSE.

618. The Trochaic Dipody, the measure in Trochaic verse, consists of two Trochees, the second of which is sometimes irrational (598, 1, 1))—i. e., it has the form of a Spondee with the time of a Trochee:

NOTE 1.—By the ordinary law of equivalents (598), a Tribrach  $\checkmark \smile \smile$  may take the place of the Trochee  $\checkmark \smile$ , and an apparent Anapaest  $\checkmark \smile >$  the place of the Irrational Trochee  $\checkmark >$ .<sup>2</sup> In proper names a cyclic Dactyl  $\checkmark \smile \smile$  (598, 1, 3)) may occur in either foot.

NOTE 2.—In the Trochaic Dipody, the first foot has a heavier ietus than the second.

Note 3.—A syllable is sometimes prefixed to a Trochaic verse. A syllable thus used is called *Anacrusis* (upward beat), and is separated from the following measure by the mark:

619. The Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic consists of two Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. In Horace it admits no equivalents, and has the following scale:

Aula divi- | tem manet. Hor.

Note.-A Trochaic Tripody occurs in the Greater Archilochian; see 628, X.

1. The Alcaie Enneasyllable verse which forms the third line in the Alcaie stanza is a Trochaie Dimeter with Anacrusis:

Pu- : er quis ex au- | la eapillis. Hor.

620. The Trochaic Tetrameter Catalectic consists of four Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. There is a diaeresis (602, 2) at the end of the fourth foot, and the incomplete dipody admits no equivalents:

Primus ad ei- | bum vocātur, || primo pulmen- | tum datur. Plaut.

1 See 601, note 3, with foot-note.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Thus in the second foot of a Trochaic Dipody the poet may use a Trochee, a Tribrach, a Spondee, or an Anapaest; but the Spondee and the Anapaest are pronounced in the same time as the Trochee or the Tribrach—i. e., they have irrational time.

<sup>9</sup> Only the leading letus of each dipody is here marked.

Note 1.—This is simply the union of two Trochaic Dimeters, the first acatalectic and the second catalectic, separated by diaeresis.

Note 2.—In Latin this verse is used chiefly in comedy, and accordingly admits great hence in the use of feet. The Irrational Trochee (598, 1, 1)) and its equivalents may occur in any foot except in the last dipody.

Note 3 .- The Trochaic Tetrameter Acatalectic also occurs in the earlier poets:

Ipse summis | saxis fixus || asperis ē- | viscerātus, Enn.

#### IV. IAMBIC VERSE.

621. The Iambic Dipody, the measure of Iambic verse, consists of two Iambi, the first of which is sometimes irrational (598, 1, 2))—i. e., it has the *form* of a Spondee with the *time* of an Iambus:

Note 1.—The Tribrach for the Iambus, and the Dactyl<sup>2</sup> or Anapaest<sup>2</sup> for the Irrational Iambus, are rare, except in comedy.

Note 2.—In the Ionic Dipody, the first foot has a heavier ictus than the second.

622. The Iambic Trimeter, also called *Senarius*, consists of three Iambic Dipodies. The Caesura is usually in the third foot, but may be in the fourth:

Quid obseră- | tīs || auribus | fundis precës ? Hor. Neptūnus al- | tō || tundit hī- | bernus salō. Hor. Hās inter epu- | lās || ut juvat | pāstās ovēs. Hor. 4

- 1. In Proper Names, a Cyclic Anapaest is admissible in any foot except the last, but must be in a single word.
- 2. In Horace the only feet freely admitted are the Iambus and the Spondee; their equivalents, the Tribrach, the Dactyl, and the Anapaest, are used very sparingly. The Tribrach never occurs in the fifth foot and only once in the first. The Anapaest occurs only twice in all.
- 3. In Comeby great liberty is taken, and the Spondee and its equivalents are freely admitted in any foot except the last.

We' can make our | lives' sublime, And', departing, | leave' behind us Foot'prints on the | sands' of time."

<sup>2</sup> The Daetyl thus used has the time of an Iambus and is marked > ⋄; the Anapaest is cyclic (598, 1, 4), marked ⋄ ⋄.

<sup>3</sup> This same scale, divided thus,  $\gtrsim \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}$ 

When Phoe'bus lifts | his head' out of | the win'ter's wave.

<sup>1</sup> Compare the corresponding English measure, in which the two parts appear as separate lines; "Lives' of great men | all' remind us

<sup>4</sup> Compare the English Alexandrine, the last line of the Spenserian stanza:

4. The Choliambus is a variety of *lambic Trimeter* with a Trochec in the sixth foot: 1

Miser Catul- | le désinas | ineptire. Catul.

623. The Iambic Trimeter Catalectic occurs in Horace with the following scale:

Voeatus at- | que non voea- | tus audit. Hor

Note .- The Dactyl and the Anapaest are not admissible; the Tribrach occurs only in the second foot.

624. The Iambic Dimeter consists of two Iambic Dipodies:

Queruntur in | silvis aves. Hor. Imbres nives | que comparat. Hor.

Ast ego vicis- | sim risero. Hor.

NOTE 1 .- Horace admits the Daetyl only in the first foot, the Tribrach only in the second, the Anapaest not at all.

Note 2.- Iambic Dimeter is sometimes catalectic.

625. The Iambic Tetrameter consists of four lambic Dipo-It belongs chiefly to comedy:

Quantum intellex- | i modo senis | sententiam | de nuptiis. Ter.

Note.-Iambic Tetrameter is sometimes catalectie :

Quot commodas | res attuli? || quot autem ade | mi curas. Ter.

#### V. Ionic Verse.

626. The Ionic Verse in Horace consists entirely of Lesser Ionics. It may be either Trimeter or Dimeter:

Neque pugno | neque ségni | pede victus; Catus idem | per apertum. Hor.

Note 1 .- In this verse the last syllable is not common, but is often long only by position (p. 338, foot-note 3) Thus us in victus is long before c in catus.

Note 2.—The Ionic Tetrameter Catalectic, also called Sotadéan Verse, occurs chiefly in comedy. It consists in general of Greater Ionies, but in Martial it has a Ditrochee as the third foot :

Hás cum gemi- | nã compede | dédicat ca- | tênãs. Mart.

Choliambus, or Scazon, means lame or limping lambus, and is so called from its limping movement. It is explained as a Trochaic Trimeter Acatalectic with Anacrusis, and with syncope (608, VII.) in the fifth foot. The example here given may be represented thus: ∪ : ∠∪−∪ | ∠∪−∪ | ∟ − ▽

#### VI. LOGACEDIC VERSE.

627. Logacedie ' Verse is a special variety of Trochaic Verse. The Irrational Trochee  $\angle >$ , the Cyclic Dactyl  $\angle \smile$ , and the Syncopated Trochee  $\sqsubseteq$  (608, VII.) are freely admitted. It has an apparently light ictus.<sup>2</sup>

Note.—Logacedic verses show great variety of form, but a few general types will indicate the character of the whole.

628. The following Logacedic verses appear in Horace:

I. The Adonic:

II. The First Pherecratic 3 or the Aristophanic:

Note.—Pherecratic is the technical term applied to the regular Logacedic Tripody. It is called the First or Second Pherecratic according as its Dactyl occupies the first or the second place in the verse. In each form it may be acatalectic or catalectic:

In Logacedic verse the term basis or base, marked  $\times$ , is sometimes applied to the foot or feet which precede the Cyclic Dactyl. Thus, in the Second Pherecratic, the first foot  $\_>$  is the base.

III. The Second Glyconic 3 Catalectic:

Note 1.—Glyconic is the technical term applied to the regular Logacedic Tetrapody. It is called the First, Second. or Third Glyconic according as its Dactyl occupies the first, second, or third place in the verse. In each form it may be either acatalectic or catalectic.

Note 2.—The Second Glyconic sometimes has a Syncope (608, VII.) in the third foot.

IV. The Lesser Asclepiadean 3 consists of two Catalectic Phe-

IV. The Lesser Asclepiadean <sup>3</sup> consists of two Catalectic Phe recratics, a Second and a First:

$$\angle$$
 > |  $\angle$   $\cup$  |  $\sqsubseteq$  ||  $\angle$   $\cup$  |  $\angle$   $\cup$  |  $\angle$   $\setminus$  |  $\triangle$  | Maceë- | nås ata | vīs || ēdite | rēgi- | bus. Hor.

- 1 From λόγος, prose, and ἀοιδή, song, applied to verses which resemble prose.
- <sup>2</sup> The free use of long syllables in the thesis causes the poetical ictus on the arsis to appear less prominent.
  - 3 Pherecratic, Glyconic, and Asclepiadean verses may be explained as Choriambic:

Pherecratic, 
$$\angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \mid \Box \land$$
  
First Glyconic,  $\angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle$   
Asclepiadčan,  $\angle > \mid \angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \mid$ 

V. The Greater Asclepiadean consists of three catalectic verses, a Second Pherecratic, an Adonic, and a First Pherecratic:

Seu plu- | res hie- | mes, || seu tribu- | it || Juppiter | ulti- | mam. Hor.

VI. The Lesser Sapphic consists of a Trochaic Dipody and a First Pherecratic:

4014>140140140

Namque [ mê sil- | vā lupus | in Sa- | binā. Hor.

VII. The Greater Sappine consists of two Catalectic Glyconics, a Third and a First with Syncope:

Inter | aequă- | les equi- | tat, || Galliea | nee lu- | pâ- | tîs. Hor.

VIII. The Lesser Alcaic consists of two Cyclic Dactyls and two Trackees:

∠ ∪ | ∠ ∪ | ∠ ∪ | ∠ □
Purpure- | ŏ yari- | us co- | lòre. *Hor*.

IX. The Greater Algaic consists of a Trochaic Dipody with Anagrusis and a Catalectic First Pheregratic:

Vi- : des ut | alta | stet nive | candi- | dum. Hor.

X. The Greater Archilochian¹ consists of a Daetylic Tetrameter (616) followed by a Trochaic Tripody. The first three feet are either Daetyls or Spondees; the fourth, a Daetyl; and the last three, Trochees:

Vitae | summa bre- | vis spem | nos vetat, | | incho- | are | longam. Hor.

NOTE.—This verse may be explained either as Logacedic or as Compound With the first explanation, the Dactyls are cyclic and the Spondees have irrational time; with the second explanation, the first member of the verse has the Dactyl as its characteristic foot and the second member the Trochee; see 601, note 2.

629. The following Logacedic verses not used in Horace deserve mention:

I. The Phalaecian is a Logacedic Pentapody: 2

Non est | vivere, | sed va- | lere | vita. Mart.

<sup>1</sup> For the Lesser Archilochian, see 617, note.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This verse differs from the Lesser Sapphic in having the Dactyl in the second foot, while the latter has the Dactyl in the third.

II. The Second Priapean consists of two Catalectic Second Glyconics with Syncope:

$$\underline{\omega} \geq |\underline{\omega} \cup |\underline{\omega} \cup |\underline{\omega}| |\underline{\omega} \geq |\underline{\omega} \cup |\underline{\omega}| |\underline{\omega} \wedge |\underline{\omega}|$$
Quercus | ârida | rūsti- | câ || confor- | māta se | cû- | rī. Catul.

#### SECTION III.

#### THE VERSIFICATION OF THE PRINCIPAL LATIN POETS.

630. Vergil and Juvenal use the Dactylic Hexameter; Ovid, the Hexameter in his Metamorphoses and the Elegiac Distich in his Epistles and other works; Horace, the Hexameter in his Epistles and Satires, and a variety of metres in his Odes and Epodes.

#### Lyric Metres of Horace.

631. For convenience of reference, an outline of the lyric metres of Horace is here inserted.

### Stanzas of Four Verses or Lines.

I. Alcaic Stanza.—First and second lines, Greater Alcaics (628, IX.); third, Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis (619, 1); fourth, Lesser Alcaic (628, VIII.):

In thirty-seven Odes: I., 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; II., 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; III., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; IV., 4, 9, 14, 15.

II. Sapphic Stanza.—The first three lines, Lesser Sapphics (628, VI.); the fourth, Adonic (628, I.):

In twenty-six Odes: I., 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; II., 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; III., 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; IV., 2, 6, 11; and Secular Hymn.

III. Greater Sappine Stanza.—First and third lines, First Glyconics Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (608, VII.); second and fourth lines, Greater Sapphies:

$$\frac{1.}{3.}$$
  $\frac{1}{3.}$ 

$$\begin{array}{c|c} 2.\\ 4.\\ \end{array} \Big\} \ - \cup \ | \ - \ > \ | \ - \cup \ | \ \sqcup \ | \ - \cup \ | \ \sqcup \ | \ \cong \ \wedge$$

In Ode I., 8.

IV. First Asclepiadéan Glyconic Stanza.—The first three lines, Lesser Asclepiadéans (628, IV.); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (628, III.):

$$\begin{array}{c} 1. \\ 2. \\ 3. \end{array}$$

V. Second Asclepiadean Glyconic Stanza.—The first two lines, Lesser Asclepiadeans (628, IV.); the third, Second Glyconic Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (628, III., note 2); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (628, III.):

$$\begin{array}{l} 1, \\ 2, \\ 1 \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{l} - > \\ -$$

In seven Odes: I., 5, 14, 21, 23; III., 7, 13: IV., 13.

VI. GLYCONIC ASCLEPIADEAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Second Glyconics Catalectic (628, III.); second and fourth, Lesser Asclepiadeans (628, IV.):

In twelve Odes: I., 3, 13, 19, 36; III., 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; IV., 1, 3.

VII. LESSER ASCLEPIADEAN STANZA.—Four Lesser Asclepiadeans:

In three Odes: I., 1; III., 30; IV., 8.

VIII. Greater Asclepiadéan Stanza.—Four Greater Asclepiadéans (628, V.):

In three Odes: I., II, 18; IV., 10.

IX. DOUBLE ALCMANIAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Dactylic Hexameters (610); second and fourth, Dactylic Tetrameters (616):

$$\begin{array}{c}
1. \\
3. \\
4. \\
4.
\end{array}$$

$$-\infty|-\infty|-\infty|-\omega|-\omega$$

In two Odes: I., 7, 28.

Note. - This stanza is formed by the union of two Alemanian stanzas; see XIX. below.

X. TROCHAIC STANZA.—First and third lines, Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic (619); second and fourth, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (623):

$$\begin{vmatrix}
1. \\
3.
\end{vmatrix} - \cup - \cup | - \cup \cong \\
2. \\
4
\end{vmatrix} \ge - \cup - | \ge - \cup - | \cup - \cong$$

In Ode II., 18.

XI. DACTYLIC ARCHILOCHIAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Dactylic Hexameters; second and fourth, Catalectic Dactylic Trimeters (617, note):

$$\begin{cases}
1. \\
3.
\end{cases} - \infty |-\infty| - \infty| - \infty| - \infty| - \infty| - 2$$

$$\begin{cases}
2. \\
4
\end{cases} - 00 |-00| = 4$$

In Ode IV., 7.

XII. GREATER ARCHILOCHIAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Greater Archilochians (628, X.); second and fourth, Iambie Trimeter Catalectic (623):

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
1. \\
3. \\
3. \\
4. \\
\end{array}$$

In Ode I., 4.

Note. - The second and fourth lines are sometimes read with syncope, as follows:

XIII. IONIC STANZA.—First and second lines, Ionic Dimeters (626); third and fourth, Ionic Trimeters (626):

In Ode III., 12.

Note.—This ode is variously arranged in different editions, sometimes in stanzas of three lines and sometimes of four.

#### Stanzas of Three Lines.

XIV. FIRST ARCHILOCHIAN STANZA.—First line, Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter; third, Daetylic Trimeter Catalectic:

$$1. -\infty |-\infty| -\infty |-\infty| -\infty |-1$$

$$2. -0 -|0 - 0 | \times |0$$

$$3. -0 -|0 -|0 | \times |0$$

In Epode 13.

Note .- In some editions, the second and third lines are united.

XV. Second Archilochian Stanza.—First line, lambic Trimeter; second, Daetylic Trimeter Catalectic; third, lambic Dimeter:

1. 
$$\bigcirc - \bigcirc - | \bigcirc - \bigcirc - | \bigcirc - \bigcirc \cong$$
  
2.  $- \bigcirc \bigcirc | - \bigcirc \bigcirc | \cong \land$ 

In Epode 11.

Note. - In some editions, the second and third lines are united.

XVI. IAMBIC STANZA.—First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Iambic Dimeter:

In the first ten Epodes.

XVII. First Pythiambic Stanza.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter (621):

1. 
$$-\infty$$
 |  $-\infty$  
In Epodes 14 and 15.

XVIII. SECOND PYTHIAMBIC STANZA.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Trimeter:

In Epode 16.

XIX. Alemanian Stanza.—First line, Daetylie Hexameter; second, Daetylie Tetrameter:

1. 
$$-\infty$$
  $|-\infty|$   $|-\infty|$   $|-\infty|$   $|-\omega|$   $|-2$   
2.  $-\infty$   $|-\infty|$   $|-\omega|$   $|-2$ 

In Epode 12.

Not grouped into Stanzas,

XX. IAMBIC TRIMETER:

In Epode 17.

## 632. INDEX TO THE LYRIC METRES OF HORACE.

The Roman numerals refer to articles in the preceding outline, 631.

Book I,		ODES.	METRES.	ODES.	METRES.
ODES.	METRES.	4	II.	26	I.
1	VII.	5	I.	27	II.
2	II.	6	II.	28	VI.
3	VI.	7	I.	29	Ī.
4	XII.	8	IÏ.	30	VII.
	V.		I.	000	v 11.
	IV.		II.	D . 17*	
6		10		Book IV	
7	IX.	11	I.	1	VI.
8	III.	12	IV.	2	II.
9	I.	13	I.	3	VI.
10	II.	14	I.	4	I.
11	VIII.	15	I.	5	IV.
12	II.	16	II.	6	II.
13	VI.	17	I.	7	XI.
14	V.	18	X.	8	VII.
15	IV.	19	I.	9	I.
	I.		I.		VIII.
		20	1.	10	
17	I.	D 177		11	II.
18	VIII.	Воок Ш	1	12	IV.
$19 \dots \dots$	VI.	1	I.	13	V.
$20 \dots$	H.	2	I.	14	I.
21	V.	3	I.	15	I.
22	II.	4	I.		
23	V.	5	I.	EPODES.	
24	IV.	6	I.	EPODES.	METRES.
25	IJ.	7	Ÿ	1	XVI.
26	I.	8	II.	2	XVI.
	I.		VI.		XVI.
					XVI
	IX.	10	IV.	4	
29	I.	11	II.	5	XVI.
30	II.	12	XIII.	6	XVI.
31	I.	13	V.	7	XVI.
$32 \dots \dots$	II.	14	II.	8	XVI.
33	IV.	15	VI.	9	XVI.
34	I.	16	IV.	10	XVI.
35	I.	17	I.	11	XV.
36	VI.	18	II.	12	XIX.
37	Ĩ.	19	VΙ.	13	XIV.
38	II.	20	II.	14	XVII.
00	11.	21	I.	15	XVII.
Воок И.			II.		XVIII.
	7				XXIII.
1	I.	23	I.	17	$\Lambda \Lambda$ .
2	II.	24	VI.	~ **	
3	I.	$25^{-}\dots$	VI.	SECULAR HYMN,	II.

633. The metres of the following poets must be briefly mentioned:

I. CATULLUS uses chiefly (1) the Elegiac Distich (615); (2) Phalaecian

verse (629, I); (3) Choliambus or Scazon (622, 4); (4) Iambic Trimeter (622); (5) Priapean (629, II.).

II. Martial uses largely the Choliambus or Scazon and the Phalaecian verse.

Note 1.-Martial also uses Jambic and Dactylic measures.

Note 2.—Seneca in his choral odes imitates the lyric metres of Horace. He uses Sapphies very freely, and often combines them into systems closing with the Adonic.

NOTE 8.—Seneca also uses Anapaestic 1 verse with Spondees and Dactyls as equivalents. This consists of one or more dipodies:

Venient annis I saecula seris.

III. Plautus and Terence use chiefly various Iambic and Trochaic metres, but they also use—

1. BACCHIAC 1 METRES, generally Tetrameter or Dimeter:

Multās' rēs | simī'tū in | meō' eor- | de vor'sō. Plaut. At ta'men ubī | fidēs' ? sī | rogēs', nīl | pendent' hie. Ter.

Note.—The Molossus, ———, may take the place of the Bacchius, as in multās rēs, and the long syllables may be resolved, as in at tamen ubi.

2. Cretic 1 Metres, generally Tetrameter or Dimeter:

Nam' dolī | nōn' dolī | sunt', nisi as- | tū' colūs. Plaut. Ut' malīs | gau'deant | at'que ex in- | com'modīs. Ter.

NOTE 1 .- Plautus also uses Anapaestic metres, especially Dimeters :

Quod ago' subit, ad- | secue' sequitur. Plaut.

This measure admits Daetyls and Spondees, rarely Proceleusmatics, U

Note 2.—For Trochaic and Iambic Metres in Comedy, see 620, note 2; 622. 3.

Note 3.—For Special Peculiarities in the prosody of Plautus and Terence, see
576, notes 2 and 3; 578, note 2; 580, notes 2, 3, and 4.2

Note 4 .- On the free use of Synacresis in Comedy, see 608, III., note 3.

<sup>1</sup> Sec 603, note 1; 597, note 1.

<sup>2</sup> For a full account of the metres of Plautus and Terence, see editions of those poets; as the edition of Plautus by Ritschl, of a part of Plautus by Harrington, the edition of Terence by Wagner, and the edition by Crowell; also Spengel, 'Plautus: Kritik, Prosodie, Metrik.'

## APPENDIX.

#### I. FIGURES OF SPEECH.

634. A Figure is a deviation from the ordinary form, construction, or signification of words.

Note.—Deviations from the ordinary forms are called Figures of Etymology; from the ordinary constructions, Figures of Syntax; and from the ordinary significations, Figures of Rhetoric.

- 635. The principal Figures of Etymology are-
- 1. APHAERESIS, the taking of one or more letters from the beginning of a word: 'st for est.
- 2. Syncope, the taking of one or more letters from the middle of a word: dixe for dixisse.
  - 3. Apocope, the taking of one or more letters from the end of a word: tūn' for tūne.
- EPENTHESIS, the insertion of one or more letters in a word: Alcumēna for Alcumēna, ālituum for ālitum.
  - 5. Metathesis, the transposition of letters: pistris for pristis.
  - 6. See also Figures of Prosody, 608.
  - 636. The principal Figures of Syntax are-
  - I. Ellipsis, the omission of one or more words of a sentence:

Habitābat ad Jovis (sc. templum), he dwelt near the temple of Jupiter. Liv. Hic illius arma (fuerunt), hic currus fuit, here were her arms, here her chariot. Verg.

1. Asyndeton is an ellipsis of a conjunction: 1

Vēnī, vidī, vicī, Icame, Isaw, Iconquered. Suet. See also 554, I., 6, with note 1.

- 2. For the Ellipsis of facio, dico, oro, see 308, 3, note 1; 523, I., note; 569, II., 2,
- 3. For Aposiopesis or Reticentia, see 637, XI., 3.
- II. Brachylogy, a concise and abridged form of expression:

Nostri Gracce nesciunt nec Gracci Latine, our people do not know Greek and the Greeks (do) not (know) Latin. Cic. Natura hominis beluis unteeddit, the nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes. Cic.

Zeugma employs a word in two or more connections, though strictly applicable only in one:

Pacem an bellum gerens, whether at peace or waging war. Sall. Duces pectasque extre carinas, slay the leaders and burn the painted ships. Verg.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Asyndeton is sometimes distinguished according to its use, as Adversative, Explicative, Enumerative, etc.; see Nägelsbach, 'Stilistik,' § 200.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Here nesciunt suggests sciunt, and bētuīs in the second example is equivalent to bētuūrum nātūrae.

<sup>3</sup> Gerens, applicable only to bellum, is here used also of pacem.

2. Syllepsis is the use of an adjective with two or more nouns, or of a verb with two or more subjects:

Pater et mater mortui sunt, father and mother are dead (439). Ter. Tü et Tullia valētis, you and Tullia are well. Cic.

III. PLEONASM is a full, redundant, or emphatic form of expression:1

Erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus exire possent, there were two ways by which ways they might depart. Caes. Eurusque Notusque munt, both Eurus and Notus rush forth. Verg.

- 1. Polysyndeton is a pleonasm in the use of conjunctions, as in the last example,
- 2. Hendiadys is the use of two nouns with a conjunction, instead of a noun with an adjective or genitive:

Armis virisque for viris armatis, with armed men. Tac.

- 8 Anaphora is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses:
- Mê căncta Îtalia, mê universa civităs consulem declărăvit, me all Italy, me the achole state declared consul. Cic.
  - 4. EPIPHORA is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses:

Laelius navus erat, doctus erat, Laelius was diligent, was learned. Cic.

5. Epizeuxis is the emphatic repetition of a word:

Fuit, fuit quondam in hac re publica virtus, there was, there was formerly virtue in this republic. Cic.

6. Monosyllabic prepositions are often repeated before successive nouns, regularly so with  $\epsilon t{ o}\epsilon t$ :

Et in bellieis et in civilibus officiis, both in military and in civil offices. Cie.

Note.—Other prepositions are sometimes repeated.

7. A demonstrative pronoun or adverb—id, hōc, illud, sīc, ita—is often used somewhat redundantly to represent a subsequent clause. So also quid, in quid consēs with a clause:

Illud të oro ut diligens sis, I ask you (that thing) to be (that you be) diligent. Cic.

- 8. Pronouns are often redundant with quidem; see 450, 4, note 2.
- 9. Pleonasm often occurs with licet:
- Ut liceat permittitur = licet, it is lawful (is permitted that it is, etc.). Cic.
- Circumlocations with rēs, genus, modus, and ratio are common.

IV. ENALLAGE is the substitution of one part of speech for another, or of one grammatical form for another:

Populus lăte rex (for regnans), a people of extensive sway (ruling extensively). Verg. Serus (sero) in caelum redeas, may you return late to heaven. Hor. Vina cadis (vīnīs cadōs) onerāre, to fill the flusts with wine. Verg. Cursus jūsti (jūstus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.

- Antimeria is the use of one part of speech for another, as in the first two examples.
- 2. Hypallage is the use of one case for another, as in the last two examples.
- 8. Prolepsis or Anticipation is the application of an epithet in anticipation of the action of the verb;
  - Schta latentla condunt, they conceal their hidden shields. Verg. See also 440, 2.
- Synesis is a construction according to sense, without regard to grammatical forms.
   For examples, see 438, 6; 445, 5; 461.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Pleonasm, a full or emphatic expression, differs widely from Tautology, which is a needless repetition of the same meaning in different words.

5. Attraction unites in construction words not united in sense:

Animal quem (for quod) vocâmus hominem, tre animal which we call man. Cic. Ecc also 445, 4, 8, and 9.

6. Anacou $\overline{\iota}$ thon is a want of harmony in the construction of the different parts of a sentence:

Sī, ut dīcunt, omnēs Grāios esse (Grāiī sunt), if, as they say, all are Greeks. Cic.

V. Hyperbaton is a transposition of words or clauses:

Practer arma nihil erat super (supererat), nothing remained, except their arms. Nep. Valet atque vivit (vivit atque valet), he is alive and well. Ter. Subcunt lücö, fluviumque relinquunt, they enter the grove and leave the river. Verg.

- 1. Anastrophe is the transposition of words only, as in the first example.
- 2. Hysteron Proteron is a transposition of clauses, as in the last example.
- 3. Thesis is the separation of the parts of a compound word :
- Nec prius respexi quam venimus, nor did I look back before (sooner than) we arrived. Verg.
  - 4. Chiasmus is an inverted arrangement of words in contrasted groups; see 562.
- $637.\ {\rm Figures}$  of Rhetoric comprise several varieties. The following are the most important:  $^1$ 
  - I. A Simile is a direct comparison:

Manus effagit imago par levibus ventīs volucrīque simillima somno, the image, like the swift winds, and very like a fleeting dream, escaped my hands. Verg.

II. METAPHOR is an implied comparison, and assigns to one object the appropriate name, epithet, or action of another:

Rěi půblicae vulnus (for damnum), the wound of the republic. Cic. Naufragium fortůnae, the wreck of fortune. Cic. Aurès véritäti elausae sunt, his ears are closed against the truth. Cic.

- 1. Allegory is an extended metaphor, or a series of metaphors. For an example, see Horace, I., Ode 14: Ō nāvis . . . occupā portum, etc.<sup>2</sup>
- III. METONYMY is the use of one name for another naturally suggested by it:

Aequo Marte (for proelio) pugnatum est, they fought in an equal contest. Liv. Furit Vulcanus (ignis), the fire rages. Verg. Proximus ardet Ücalegon (domus Čcalegontis), Ucalegon burns next. Verg.

Note.—By this figure the cause is often put for the effect, and the effect for the cause; the property for the possessor, the place or age for the people, the sign for the thing signified, the material for the manufactured article, etc.: Mārs for bellum, Vulcānus for iquis, Bacchus for vīnum, nöbilitās for nēbilīs, Graecia for Graecī, laurea for vīctiria, argentum for vāsa argentea, etc.

¹ On Figurative Language, see the eighth and ninth books of Quintilian, 'De Institutione Oratoria,' and the fourth book of 'Auctor ad Herennium' in Cicero's works.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In this beautiful allegory the poet represents the vessel of state as having been well-nigh wrecked in the storms of the civil war, but as now approaching the haven of peace.

1. Autonomosia designates a person by some title or office, as èversor Karthāninis for Scipiò, Romanae eloquentiae princeps for Cicerò.

IV. EYNECDOCHE is the use of a part for the whole, or of the whole for a part: of the special for the general, or of the general for the special:

Statio male tida carinis (navibus), a station unsafe for ships. Verg.

V. IRONY is the use of a word for its opposite:

Légatos bonus (for malus) imperator vester non admisit, your good communder did not odmit the ambassadors. Liv. See also 507, 3, note 1.

Note .- Metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, and irony are often called Tropes.

VI. CLIMAX (ladder) is a steady ascent or advance in interest:

Africano industria virtutem, virtus gloriam, gloria aemulas comparavit, industry procured virtue for Africanus, virtue glory, glory rivals. Cic.

VII. HYPERBOLE is an exaggeration:

Ventis et fulminis öcior alis, swifter than the winds and the wings of the lightning. Verg.

VIII. LITOTES denies something instead of affirming the opposite:

Non opus est = perniciosum est, it is not necessary. Cie.

IX. Personification or Prosofopela represents inanimate objects as living beings:

Cujus latus ille muero petebat? whose side did that weapon seek? Cie.

X. Apostrophie is an address to inanimate objects or to absent persons: Vos, Albani tumuli, vos imploro, I implore you, ye Alban hilis. Cic.

XI. The following figures deserve brief mention:

1. Alliteration, a repetition of the same letter at the beginning of successive words:

Vi victa vis est, force was conquered by force. Cie. Fortissimi viri virtūs, the virtue of a most brave man. Cie.

2. Apophasis of Paraleiesis, a pretended omission: 2

Non dieó te pecanias accepisse; rapinas tuas omnes omitto, I do not state that you accepted money; I omit all your acts of rapine. Cic.

3. Aposiopesis or Reticentia, an ellipsis which for rhetorical effect leaves the sentence unfinished;

Quos ego-sed motos praestat componere fluctus, whom I-but it is better to calm the troubled waves. Verg.

4. EUPHEMISM, the use of mild or agreeable language on unpleasant subjects:

SI quid mild humanitus accidisset, if anything common to the lot of man should befull me—i. c., if I should die. Cie.

 $<sup>^{-1}</sup>$  See also First Orstion against Catillne, VII. : Quae tecum . . . tacita loquitur, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Sometimes called occupătió.

5. Onomatopoeia, the use of a word in imitation of a special sound:

Boves mugiunt, the cattle low. Liv. Murmurat unda, the wave marmurs. Verg.

6. Oxymôron, an apparent contradiction ·

Absentes adsunt et egentes abundant, the absent are present and the needy have an abundance. Cie.

7. PARONOMASIA or AGNOMINATION, a play upon words:

Hune avium duleëdo dueit ad avium, the attraction of birds leads him to the pathless wood. Cie.

#### H. LATIN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

638. The Latin derives its name from the Latini or Latins, the ancient inhabitants of Latini in Italy. It belongs to the Indo-European or Aryan family, which embraces seven groups of tongues known as the Indian or Sanskrit, the Iersain or Zend, the Greek, the Italian, the Celtic, the Slaconic, and the Teutonic or Germanic. The Latin is the leading member of the Italian group, which also embraces the Umbrian and the Oscan. All these languages have one common system of inflection, and in various respects strikingly resemble each other. They are the descendants of one common speech spoken by a single race of men untold centuries before the dawn of history.

Note 1.—In illustration of the relationship between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English, compare the following paradigms of deelension:  $^2$ 

	SINGUL	AR.	
Sanskrit. Stem. pad,	Greek. ποδ,	LATIN. ped,	English. foot.
Nom., pād,	πούς,	pēs,	foot.
Gen. padas, Dat. pade, Aec. pādam, Abl. padas, Ins. padā, Loc. padi,	ποδός, ποδί, πόδα, <sup>3</sup>	pedis, pedi, pedem, pede, <sup>4</sup>	of a foot. to a foot. foot. from a foot. with a foot. in a foot.
	PLURA	L.	
Nom., { pādas,	πόδες,	pedēs,	feet.
Gen. padām, Dut. padbhyas, Ace. padas, Abt. padbhyas, Ins. padbhis, Loc. patsu,	ποδῶν, ποσί, πόδας,	pedum, pedibus, ped's, pedibus,	of feet. to feet. feet. from feet. with feet. in feet.

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  The pun, lost in English, is in the use of avium, a remote or pathless place, with avium, of birds.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See also p. 71, foot-note 2; p. 83, foot-note 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The Ablative, the Instrumental, and the Locative are lost in Greek, but their places are supplied by the Genitive and the Dative.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The final consonant, probably t, of the original Ablative ending is changed to s in padas and dropped in pede. The Instrumental and the Locative are lost in Latin, but their places are supplied by the Ablative.

Note 2.—In these paradigms observe that the initial p in pad,  $\pi o \delta$ , ped, becomes f in foot, and that the final d becomes t. This change is in accordance with Grimm's Law of the Rotation of Mutes in the Germanic languages. This law is as follows:

The Primitive Mutes, which generally remain unchanged in Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, are changed in passing into the Germanic languages, to which the English belongs. Thus the Soxants, d, g, in passing into English, become Surds, t, k; the Surds, c, k, b, t, become Asphates, h, wh, f (for ph), th; the Asphates, bh, 1 dh, 1 gh, become Sonants, b, d, a, a

NOTE 3.—The relationship between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English may be rbundantly illustrated by comparing the forms of familiar words in these different languages.<sup>3</sup>

639. The earliest specimens of Latin whose date can be determined are found in ancient inscriptions, and belong to the latter part of the fourth century before Christ or to the beginning of the third. Fragments, however, of laws, hymns, and sacred formulas, doubtless of an earlier though uncertain date, have been preserved in Cato, Livy, Cieero, and other Latin writers.

<sup>3</sup> Compare the following:

SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	ENGLISH.
dvau.	δύο,	duo,	two.
trayas,	τρείς,	tres,	three.
sat,	έξ,	sex,	six.
sapta,	ἐπτά,	septem,	seven.
daça,	δέκα,	decem,	ten.
dvis,	δis,	bis,	twice.
tris,	τρίς,	ter.	thrice,
mātā,	μήτηρ,	mäter,	mother.
pitā,	πατήρ,	pater,	father.
naus,	vaūs,	nāvis,	navy.
vāk,	ŏψ,	vôx,	voice.

• Such are the ancient forms of prayer found in Cato and other writers, the fragments of Salian hyunus, of the formulas of the Fetial priests, and of ancient laws, especially of the laws of the Twelve Tables. The following inscription on the tomb of the Scipios shows some of the peculiarities of early Latin:

HONG OINO PLOIRVME CONSENTIONT R
DVONORO OPTYMO FYISE VIRO
LVCIOM SCIPIONE FILIOS BARBATI
CONSOL CENSOR AIDLIS HIC FYET A
HEC CEPIT CORSICA ALERIAQVE VRBE
DEDET TEMPESTATEBUS AIDE MERETO

## In ordinary Latin :

Hune ünum plürimi cönsentinnt Römäi bonörum optimum füsse virum rirörum, Lücium Scipiönem. Filius Barbāti cönsul, censor, aedilis bie fuit apud rös. Hle cepit Corsicam Aleriamque urbem pügnandö; dedit tempestätibus aedem meritö võtum.

See Wordsworth, 'Early Latin,' Part II.; F. D. Allen, 'Early Latin'; Roby, I., p. 418.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Bh generally is represented in Latin by b or f; dh by d or f, and gh by g/h, or f; see Schleicher, pp. 244-251.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> For an account of Grimm's Law, with its applications, see Max Müller, 'Science of Language,' Second Series, Lecture V.; Papillon, pp. 85-91.

- 640. The history of Roman literature begins with Livius Andronicus, a writer of prays, and the earliest Roman author known to us. It embraces about eight centuries, from 250 B. c. to 550 A. D., and has been divided by Dr. Freund into three principal periods. These periods, with their principal authors, are as follows:
  - I. The Ante-Classical Period, from 250 to 81 b. c.:

Ennius, Plautus, Terence, Lucretius.

- II. The Classical Period, embracing-
- 1. The Golden Age, from SI B. C. to 14 A. D.:

Cicero,	Nepos,	Horace,	Tibullus,
Caesar,		Ovid,	Propertius.
Sallust,	Livy, Vergil,	Catullus,	

2. The Silver Age, from 14 to 180 A. D.:

Phaedrus,	The Plinies,	Quintilian,	Persius,
Vellēius,	Tacitus,	Suctonius,	Lucan,
The Senecas,	Curtius,	Juvenal,	Martial.

## HI. The Post-Classical Period, embracing-

1. The Brazen Age, from 180 to 476 A. D.:

Justin,	Eutropius,	Lactantius,	Claudian,
Victor,	Macrobius,	Ausonius,	Terentian.

2. The Iron Age, from 476 to 550 A. D.:

Boëthius, Cassiodorus, Justinian, Priseian.

### III. THE ROMAN CALENDAR.

- 641. The Julian Calendar of the Romans is the basis of our own, and is identical with it in the number of months in the year and in the number of days in the months.
- 642. Peculiarities.—The Roman calendar has the following peculiarities:
- 1. The days were not numbered from the beginning of the month, as with us, but from three different points in the month:
  - 1. The Calends, the first of each month.
- 2. The Nones, the *fifth*—but the *seventh* in March, May, July, and October.
- 3. The Ides, the thirteenth-but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.
- From these three points the days were numbered, not forward, but backward.

Note.—Hence, after the *Ides* of each month, the days were numbered from the Calends of the following month,

III. In numbering backward from each of these points, the day before

each was denoted by pri liè Kalendās, Nonās, etc.; the second before each by diè tertio (not secondo) ante Kalendās, etc.; the third, by die quarto, etc.; and so on through the month.

1. This peculiarity in the use of the numerals, designating the second day before the Calends, etc., as the third, and the third as the fourth, etc., arises from the fact that the Calends, etc., were themselves counted as the first. Thus pridit Kalendas becomes the second before the Calends, dit levil ante Kalendas, the third, etc.

2. In dates the name of the month is added in the form of an adjective in agreement with Kalendás, Nonda, etc., as, dié quarto ante Nonda Januarias, often shortened to quarto ante Nonda Jan., or IV. ante Nonda Jan., or without ante, as, IV. Nonda Jan., the second of January.

3. Ante diem is common, instead of diè-ante, as, ante diem quartum Nonãs Jān, for diè quartō ante Nonãs Jān,

4. The expressions ante diem Kal., etc., prīdiē Kal., etc., are often used as Indeclinable nouns with a preposition, as, ex ante diem V. Idūs Oct., from the 11th of Oct. Liv. Ad prīdiē Nonās Mātās, till the 6th of May. Cic.

643. Calendar for the Year.

Days of the Month.	March, Ma Octob			, August,		l, June, r, November.	Fe	bruary.
1	1 Kalendis 1		KALENDIS.		KALENDĪS		K · LENDIA.	
2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	V1. N	onas.1	IV.	Nonas.	1V.	Nonas.	1V.	Nonas.
3	V.		III.	••	1 111		111.	**
4	IV.	**	Pridie :	Nonas.	India:	Nonas.	Pridi	
5	111.	٠.	Nonīs.		Nosis.		Non s.	
6	Pridië No	mās.	VIII.	ldās.	VIII.	ld.s.	VII.	Īdās.
7	Nonis.		VII.		VII.	••	VII.	••
ŝ	VIII.	Īdūs.	VI.	4.	VI.		VI.	44
9	VII.	•••	V.	**	V.	**	V.	"
10	VI.	4.	IV.	**	1 V.	**	IV.	**
îĭ	Ÿ.	44	III.	44	111.	44	111.	
12	IV.	44	Pridie	Idās.	Pridic	Īdūs.	Pridie	Īdūs.
13	HII.	44	Tours		IDIBUS.		IDICUS	
14	Pridie Id	តែទ	XIX	Kalend,2		Kalend.2	XVI.	Kalend. <sup>2</sup>
15	Ipinus.	40.	XVIII		XVII.		XV.	**
16	XVII. B	falend 2	XVII.	**	XVI.		XIV.	64
17	XVI.	···	XVI.		XV.	44	XIII.	**
18	XV.	4.6	XV.		XIV.	44	XII.	64
19	XIV.	**	XIV.		XIII.	44	XI.	44
20	XIII.	44	XIII.	+4	XII.	4.	X.	**
21	XII.	**	XII.	**	XI.	44	iX.	44
22	XI.	64	XI.		X.		viii.	44
23	X.	46	X.	44	íx	44	vii.	**
24	ix.	**	ix.	**	viп.	-4	νi.	44
25	viii.	44	viii.		vii.		V. (V	/3 "
26	VII.	44	vii.	44	vi.		IV. (V	
26 27	VI.	**	vi.		v.		iii. d	
28	v.	44	V.	44	iv.	**	Prid 4	Kal (III. Kal
29	ìŸ.	16	iv.		iii	4+	A rid. I	(Prid. Kal
30	iii.	**	iiii			Kalend.		(11.4.12.11
31	Pridić K			Kalend.	Triate	realchi.		

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  To the Calends, Nones, etc., the name of the month must of course be added. Before Nonas, Īdūs, etc., <code>onte</code> is sometimes used and sometimes omitted (642, 111., 2).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Calends of the following month are of course meant; the 1sth of March, for histance, is XVII. Kalendin Aprilia.

The inclosed forms apply to leap-year.

- 644. English and Latin Dates.—The table (643) will furnish the learner with the English expression for any Latin date, or the Latin expression for any English date; but it may be convenient also to have the following rule:
- I. If the day is numbered from the Nones or Ides, subtract the number diminished by one from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fall:
  - VIII. ante Īdūs Jān. = 13 (8 1) = 13 7 = 6th of January.
- II. If the day is numbered from the Calends of the following month, subtract the number diminished by two from the number of days in the current month:

XVIII. ante Kal. Feb. = 31 - (18 - 2) = 31 - 16 = 15th of January.

Note.—In leap-year the 24th and the 25th February are both called the sixth before the Calends of March, VI. Kal. Mart. The days before the 24th are numbered as if the month contained only 28 days, but the days after the 25th are numbered regularly for a month of 29 days: V., IV., III. Kal. Mart., and pridit Kal. Mart.

- 645. The Roman day, from sunrise to sunset, and the night, from sunset to sunrise, were each divided at all seasons of the year into twelve hours.
- 1. The night was also divided into four watches of three Roman hours each.
- 2. The hour, being uniformly 1/12 of the day or of the night, of course varied in length with the length of the day or night at different seasons of the year.

# IV. ROMAN MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

**646.** The principal Roman coins were the  $\bar{a}s$ , of copper; the sestertius,  $qu\bar{v}n\bar{a}rius$ ,  $d\bar{v}n\bar{a}rius$ , of silver; and the aureus, of gold. Their value in the classical period may be approximately given as follows:

Ãs	1 to	2 cents.
Sestertius	5	4.6
Quīnārius		"
Ďenārius	20	"
Aureus = 25 dēnārii	\$5.00	

1. The ds, the unit of the Roman currency, contained originally a pound of copper, but it was diminished from time to time till at last it contained only  $\frac{1}{24}$  of a pound.

Note.—An ās, whatever its weight, was divided into twelve unciae.

- The sestertius contained originally 2½ āssēs, the quinārius 5, and the dēnārius 10; but as the ās depreciated in value, the number of āssēs in these coins was increased.
  - 3. The ās is also used as a general unit of measure. Thus-
  - 1) In Weight, the ās is a pound, and the uncia an onnee.
- In Measure, the ās is a foot or a jūgerum (648, IV. and V.), and the uncia is 1/12 of a foot or of a jūgerum.
  - 3) In Interest, the as is the unit of interest-i. e., 1 per cent. a month,

or 12 per cent. a year; the *uncia* is 1/12 per cent. a month, or 1 per cent. a year; and the semis is 6/12 per cent. a month, or 6 per cent. a year, etc.

- 4) In Inheritance, the ās is the whole estate, and the uncra 1/12 of it: here's ex āsse, heir of the whole estate; here's ex dodrante, heir of 1/12.
- 647. Computation of Money.—In all sums of money the common unit of computation was the *sestertius*, also called *nāmmus*; but four special points deserve notice:
- I. In all sums of money, the units, tens, and hundreds are denoted by sestertii with the proper cardinals:

Quinque sestertii, 5 sesterces; viginti sestertii, 20 sesterces; ducenti sestertii, 200 sesterces.

- 11. One thousand sesterces are denoted by mille sestertii, or mille sester-tiùm.
- III. In sums less than 1,000,000 sesterces, the thousands are denoted either (1) by milia sestertium (gen. plur.), or (2) by sestertia:

Duo mīlia sestertium, or duo sestertia, 2,000 sesterces; quinque mīlia sestertium, or quinque sestertia, 5,000 sesterces.

Note. - With sestertia the distributives are generally used, as, bina sestertia.

IV. In sums containing one or more millions of sesterces, sestertium with the value of 100,000 sesterces is used with the proper numeral adverb, decies, vieies, etc. Thus—

Deciës sestertium, 1,000,000 ( $10 \times 100,000$ ) sesterces; vieiës sestertium, 2,000,000 ( $20 \times 100,000$ ) sesterces.

- 1 Sestertium.—In the examples under IV., sestertium is treated as a neuter noun in the singular, though originally it was probably the genitive plural of sestertius, and the full expression for 1,000,000 sesterces was Deciës centina milia sestertiüm. Centena milia was afterward generally omitted, and finally sestertiüm lost its force as a genitive plural, and became a neuter noun in the singular, capable of declension.
  - Sometimes selectrium is omitted, leaving only the numeral adverb: as, decies, 1,000,000 sesterces.
  - The sign HS is often used for \*\*sestertii\*, and sometimes for \*\*sestertia\*, or \*\*sestertium\*\*.
     Decein HS = 10 \*\*sesterce\* (HS = sestertii).
     Decies HS = 1,000,000 \*\*sesterce\* (HS = sestertium).
  - 648. Weights and Measures.—The following weights and measures deserve mention:
  - I. The Libra, also called  $\tilde{As}$  or  $Pond\delta$ , equal to about 11½ ounces avon-dupois, is the basis of Roman weights.
    - 1. The  $L\bar{\imath}bra$ , like the as in money, is divided into 12 parts.
    - II. The Modius, equal to about a peck, is the basis of dry measure.
  - III. The Amphora, containing a Roman cubic foot, equivalent to about seven gallons, is a convenient basis of liquid measure.
  - IV. The Roman Pes or Foot, equivalent to about 11.6 inches, is the basis of long measure.

NOTE.—Cubitus is equivalent to 11/2 Roman feet, passus to 5, and stadium to 625.

V. The Jugerum, containing 28,800 Roman square feet, equivalent to about six tenths of an acre, is the basis of square measure.

## V. ROMAN NAMES.

- 649. A Roman citizen usually had three names. The first, or pracnomen, designated the individual; the second, or nomen, the gens or tribe; and the third, or cognomen, the family. Thus, Publius Cornelius Scipio was Pūblius of the Scīpio family of the Cornclian gens, and Gaius Jūlius Caesar was Gāius of the Caesar family of the Julian gens.
  - The pracnomen was often abbreviated:

 $A_{\cdot} = Aulus.$ M. = Māreus. S. (Sex.) = Sextus.M'. = Manius. Ser. = Servius. Ap. = Appius.Mam. = Māmereus. C. = Gaius. Sp. = Spurius. Cn. = Gnacus. N. = Numerius.  $T_{\cdot} = Titus$ D. = Decimus. P. = Pūblius. Ti. (Tib.) = Tiberius. L. = Lūcius.  $Q_{\bullet}(Qu_{\bullet}) = Quintus_{\bullet}$ 

- 2. Sometimes an agnomen or surname was added. Thus Scipio received the surname Africanus from his victories in Africa. Publius Cornelius Scipio Africanus.
- 3. An adopted son took (1) the full name of his adoptive father, and (2) an agnomen in anus formed from the name of his own gens. Thus Octavius when adopted by Caesar became Gāius Jūlius Caesar Octāviānus. Afterward the title of Augustus was conferred upon him, making his full name Gāius Jūlius Caesar Octāviānus Augustus.
- 4. Women were generally known by the name of their gens. Thus the daughter of Jūlius Caesar was simply Jūlia; of Tullius Cicero, Tullia; of Cornelius Scipio, Cornelia. Three daughters in any family of the Cornelian gens would be known as Cornelia, Cornelia Secunda or Minor, and Cornelia Tertra

# 650. Various abbreviations occur in classical authors: rāvit.

imus.

A. D. = ante diem. F. C. = faciendum cu- ! Aed. = aedilis.A. U. C. = anno urbis ld. = Īdñs conditae. Imp. = imperator.  $Cos. = e\delta nsul.$ K. (Kal.) = Kalendae.Coss. = consules. Le $\sigma_{c} = 1\bar{e}\sigma\bar{a}tus$ .  $D_r = divns.$ Non. = Nonae. D. D. = dōnō dedit. O. M. = optimus max-Des. = designātus. D. M. = drīs mānibus. P. C. = patrės eonserip-D. S. = dē suō. D. S. P. P. = dē suā pecunia posuit. Eq. Rom. = eques Romānus.

F. = filius.

Pont. Max. = pontifex māximus. P. R. = populus Rōmānus. Pr. = practor.

Pracf. = praefectus. Proc. = proconsul. Q. B. F. F. Q. S. = quodbonum, fēlīx, faustumque sit.

Quir. = Quirītēs. Resp. = res pública. S. = senātus.

S. C. = senātūs consultum.

 D. P. = salūtem dieit plūrimam.

S. P. Q. R. = senātus populusque Romānus. Tr. Pl. = tribūnus plēbis.

- VI. VOWELS REFORE TWO CONSONANTS OR A DOUBLE CONSONANT.
- 651. On the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, a double consonant, or the letter j, observe—
- That vowels are long before ns and nf; generally also before gn and j:

conscius, consensus, constans, construo, consul, insanus, inscribo, insequor, instans, insula, amans, monens, regens, audiens; confero, conficio, confluo, infamia, infelix, infensus, infero, infrequens; abiegnus, benignus, magnus, malignus, regnum, signum, stagnum; cojus, ejus, hūjus, mājor, pējor.

II. That all vowels which represent diphthongs, or are the result of contraction, are long:

existimo, amásse, audissem, introrsum, introrsus, prorsus, quorsum, rúrsum, sarsum, málle, mállem, nólle, nóllem, núllus, úllus, Márs, Mártis.

- III. That the long vowels of Primitives are retained in Derivatives-
- In āscō, ēscō, and īscō in Inceptives from verbs of the first, second, or fourth conjugation:

gelásco, labásco, acesco, áresco, floresco, latesco, patesco, silesco, viresco, edormisco, obdormisco, seisco, conscisco.

2. In large classes of words of which the following are examples:

crás-tinus, dúc-tilis, fas-tus, ne-fas-tus, flós-culus, jús-tus, in-jús-tus, jús-tissimus, jús-titia, mátr-imonium, os-culum, os-culor, os-tium, palús-ter, rás-trum, rós-trum, rús-ticus, salic-tum.

IV. That vowels are long in the ending of the Nominative Singular of nouns and adjectives with long increments in the Genitive:

frůx, lêx, lůx, pâx, plêbs, rêx, thôráx, vôx.

V. That in the second person of the Perfect Active i is long in the penult;

amāvisti, amāvīstis, monulsti, monulstis, rēxīsti, rēxīstis, audivisti, audīvīstis.

¹ It is often difficult, and sometimes absolutely impossible, to determine the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, but the subject has of late been somewhat carefully investigated by Ritschi, Schmitz, and others. An attempt has been made in this article to collect the most important results of these labors. The chief sources of information upon this subject are (1) ancient inscriptions, (2) Greek transcriptions of Latin words, (3) the testimony of ancient grammarians, (4) the comic poets, and (7) etymology. See Schmitz. Beitrage'; Ritschi, 'Rheinisches Museum,' vol. xxxl., pp. 481—492; Schöll, 'Acta Societätis Philologae Lipsténsis,' vol. vi., pp. 71—215; Müller. 'Orthographiae et Prosòdiae Latinae Summárium'; Foerster, 'Rheinisches Museum,' xxxiii, pp. 291–299.

<sup>2</sup> Introrsum from introcersum; üllus from ünulus; Mars from J.

Note.—According to Priscian,  $^1$  e is long before  $x\bar{\imath}, x\bar{\imath}st\bar{\imath}$ , etc., in the Perfect Active:  $r\bar{\epsilon}x\bar{\imath}, r\bar{\epsilon}x\bar{\imath}t$ ,  $t\bar{\epsilon}x\bar{\epsilon}runt$ ,  $ill\bar{\epsilon}ximus$ .

VI. That long vowels occur in the following words and in their deriva-

āctiŏ	māximus	rēctus
āctitō	mille	Sāllustius
āctor	nārrō	sēscentī
āctus	Nõrba	Sēstius
āxilla	nūntius	structor
clāssis	ōrdō	strūctūra
erīspus	ōrnāmentum	strūctus
dāmma	ōrnō	tāxillus
ēmptus	pāstor	tössillae
fēstus	pāxillus	trīstis
Fēstus	<b>P</b> ōlliō	ūnetič
Jūppite <b>r</b>	Popīllius	ūnetitō
lēctitā	prīscus	ūnctor
lēctor	propinquus	ŭnetūra.
lēctus	prēximus	ūnetus
lictor	querēlla	Vēstīnus
līttera	quinque	vēstis
luēlla	quintus	vēxillum
Māreus	rēctiō	vīlla
māxilla	rēctor	Vīpsānius

VII. That vowels are probably short before nt and nd:2

amant, amantis, monent, monentis, prādentis, prādentia, amandus, monendus, regendus.

VIII. That the short vowels of Primitives are retained in Derivatives: inter-nus, juven-tus, liber-tās, mūnus-culum, patr-imōnium, pauper-culus, super-bus, vir-tūs.

IX. That vowels are generally short in the ending of the Nominative Singular of nouns and adjectives with short increments in the Genitive:

adeps, calix, dux, grex, hiems, jūdex, nex, nux.

Note.—Vowels before final ns are of course excepted.

- X. That the first vowel in the following endings is short:
- 1. ernus, ernius, ernīnus; urnus, urnius, urnīnus:

māternus, paternus, Līternius, Līternīnus, taciturnus, Sāturnius, Sāturnīnus.

2. ustus, estus, ester, estis, esticus, estīnus, estris:

robustus, venustus, vetustus, honestus, modestus, campester, silvester, agrestis, caelestis, domestieus, clandestīnus, terrestris.

XI. That all vowels are to be treated as short unless there are good reasons for believing them to be long.

<sup>1</sup> See Book IX., 28.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See p. 37, foot-note 2: p. 61, foot-note 2.

# INDEX OF VERBS.

This Index contains an alphabetical list, not only of all the simple verbs in common use which involve any important irregularities, but also of such compounds as seem to require special mention. In regard to compounds of prepositions (344) observe—

- 1. That the elements—preposition and verb—often appear in the compound in a changed form; see 344, 4-6
- 2. That the stem-vowel is often changed in the Perfect and Supine; see 221.

#### Α

Ab-dō,1 ere, didī, ditum, 271. Ab-iciō, see jacio, 271, 2. Ab-igō; see agō, 271, 2. Aboleo, ere, evi, itum, p. 124, footnote 2. Abolèsco, ere, olèvi, olitum, 277. Ab-ripio; see rapio, 274. Abs-condo; see abdo, 271. Ab-sum, 290, L Ac-cendo, ere, i, censum, 272, 3. Ac-cido; see cado, 272; 301. Ac-cino; see cano, 271. Ac-cipió; see capió, 271, 2. Ac-colo; see colo, 274. Ac-cumbo, ere, cubui, cubitum, 273. Acesco, ere, acui, -, 281. Ac-quiro; see quaero, 278. Acuo, ere, ui, utum, 279. Ad-do; see abdo, 271; 255, I., 4. Ad-fari, p. 142, foot-note 5. Ad-tero, 292, 2. Ad-imô; sec emô, 271, 2. Ad-ipiscor, i, adeptus sum, 283, footnote 1. Ad-olesco: see abolesco, 277. Ad-orior; see orior, 288, 2. Ad-spicio; see aspicio, 217, 2. Ad-sto, 259, N. 2. Ad-sum, 290, I.  $\Lambda g$ -gredior; see gradior, 283. A-gnosco; see nosco, 278. Ago, ere, egi, actum, 271, 2. Aio, def., 297, 11. Albeo, ere, -, 262, N. 2. Algeo, ere, alsi, -, 265.

Al-licio, ere, lexi, lectum, 217, 2; p. 130, toot-note 8. Alo, ere, alui, alitum, altum, 273. Amb-igō; see agō, 271, 2. Amb-io, 295, N. 2. Amicio, ire, ui (xi), tum, 285. Amò, 205. Amplector, i, amplexus sum, 283. Ango, cre, anxi, —, 272, N. 1. An-nuó, cre, i, —, 272, N. 1. Ante-capió, p. 128, foot-note 14. Apage, def., 297, 111. Aperio, ire, ui, tum, 285. Apiscor, i, aptus sum, 283. Ap-pareo; see pareo, 262; 301. Ap-petó; see peto, 278. Ap-plico; see plico, 258. Ap-pôno; sec pôno, 273. Arcesso, ere, ivi, itum, 278. Ardeó, ère, arsi, arsum, 265. Ārēsco, ere, āruī, —, 281. Arguo, ere, ui, utum, 279. Ar-ripio; see rapio, 274. A-scendo; see seando, 272, 3. Λ-spergō; see spargō, 270. A-spicio, ere, spexi, spectum, 217, 2. As-sentior, îrî, sênsus sum, 288, 2. As-sideo; sec sedeo, 267, 2. At-texo; see texo, 274. At-tineo; see teneo, 263. At-tingo; see tango, 271. At-tollo; see tollo, 271. Audeo, ere, ausus sum, 268, 3. Audio, 211. Au-ferő, 292, 2. Augeo, ère, auxi, auctim, 264. Avē, aef. ; see hace, 297, III.

Final ô in verbs is sometimes shortened, though rarely in the best writers.

Bālbūtiō, 1re, —, 284, N. 2. Batuō, ere, i, —, 272, N. 1. Bibō, ere, i, —, 272, N. 1. Blandior, iri, itus sum, 288.

Cado, ere, cecidi, casum, 272. Caecútio, ire, -, 284, N. 2. Cacdo, ere, cecidi, caesum, 272. Calesco, ere, caluī, —, 281. Calveō, ere, —, 262, N. 2. Candeō, ēre, ui, 262, N. 1. Candō, p. 129, foot-note 14. Caneō, ēre, —, 262, N. 2. Cano, ere, cecini, cantum, 271. Capesso, ere, ivi, itum, 278. Capio, ere, cepī, captum, 217; 218; 271, 2. Carpo, ere, si, tum, 269. Caveo, ere cavi, cautum, 266. Cedo, ere, cessi, cessum, 270. Cedo, def., 297, 111. Cellő, obs.; see excellő, 273, N. Cenő, 257, N. 2. Censeo, ere, ui, censum, 263. Cerno, ere, crevi, cretum, 277. Cico, ere, civi, citum, 265, N. Cingo, ere, cinxi, cinctum, 269. Ciō, 265, N. Circum-ago, p. 128, foot-note 13. Circum-do, 255, 1., 4; 259, N. 1. Circum-sisto; see sisto, 271. Circum-sto, 255, 1., 4. Clango, ere, —, 272, N. 2. Claudo, ere, clausi, clausum, 270. Claudo, ere, — (to be lame), 272, N. 2. Co-arguo; see arguo, 279. Co-emō, p. 128, foot-note 15. Coepi, def., 297. Co-gnosco; see nosco, 278. Cogo, ere, coegi, coactum; see ago, 271, 2. Col-lido; see laedo, 270. Col-ligo; see  $l \epsilon g \delta$ , 271, 2. Col-luceo; see luceo, 265. Colo, ere, ui, cultum, 274. Com-edo, 291, N. 3. Com-miniscor, i, commentus sum, 283. Com-moveo; see moveo, 266. Com-parco (perco); see parco, 272. Comperio, ire, peri, pertum, 287, N. Compesco, ere, pescui, —, 273, N. Com-pingo; see pango, 271. Com-plector, i, plexus sum. Com-pleo, ève, èvi, étum 261.

Com-primō; see premō, 270. Com-pungo, ere, punxi, punctum;

see pungó, 271.

Con-cidō; see cadō, 272. Con-cido; see cardo, 272. Con-cino; see cano, 271. Con-cludo; see claudo, 270. Con-cupisco, ere, cupivi, cupitum. 281, N. Con-cutio; see quatio, 270. Con-dō; sec abdō, 271. Con-fercio; see farcio, 286. Con-fero, 292, 2 Con-ficio; see facio, 271, 2. Con-fit, def., 297, 111. Con-fiteor; see fateor, 268, 2. Con-fringo; see frango, 271, 2. Con-gruo, ere, i, -, 272, N. 1. Coniveo, ere, nivi, nixi, -, 265; 267, 3.Conor, 260. Con-sero; see sero, 277, N. Con-sisto; see sisto, 271. Con-spicio, ere, spexi, spectum, 217, 2. Con-stituo; see statuo, 279. Con-sto, 301; see sto, 259. Consulo, ere, ui, tum, 274. Con-temno; see temuo, 272, N. 2. Con-texō; see texō, 274. Con-tingō; see tango, 271; 301. Convalesco, ere, valui, valitum, 281, N. Coquo, ere, coxi, coctum. Cor-ripio; see rapio, 274. Cor-ruo: see ruo. 279. Crébresco, ere, crébruí, —, 282, N. Credo, ere, credidi, creditum, 271. Crepo, arc, ui, itum, 258. Cresco, ere, erevi, cretum, 277. Cubo, are, uī, itum, 258. Cudo, ere, cudi, cusum, 272, 3. Cumbo; see accumbo, 273. Cupio, ere, īvī, ītum, 217, 1; 278. Curro, ere, eucurri, eursum, 272.

Děbeő, 262. De-cerpo, ere, sī, tum, p. 127, footnote 2. Decet, impers., 299. De-do; see *abdo*, 271. De-fendo, ere, i, fensum, 272, 3. De-fetiscor; see fatiscor, 283. De-fit, def., 297, 111. Dēgō, ere, dēgī; see agō, 271, 2. Delecto, impers., 301. Deleo, ére, evî, étum, 261. De-ligo; see lego, 271, 2. Dē-mico; see *micō*, 258. Dēmō, ere, dēmpsī, dēmptum. De-pango; see pango, 271. De-primo; sec premo, 270. Depső, ere, ui, itum, tum, 273. Dé-seendo; see scardo, 272, 3.

Dē-siliō; see saliō, 285. Dě-sipió; sce sapiō, 278. De-sum, 290, L De-tendo; see tendo, 271. De-tineo; see teneo, 263. Dé-vertor; see vertô, 272, 3. Dicò, cre, dixi, dictum, 238. Dif-ferò, 292, 2. Di-gnosco; see nosco, 278. Di-ligō; see legō, 271, 2. Di-mico; see mico, 258. Di-rigo, ere, rext, rectum, p. 127, foot-note 2. Disco, ere, didici, -, 271. Dis-crepă; sec crepă, 258. Dis-cumbo; see accumbo, 273. Dis-pertior; see partier, 288. Dis-pliceo; see placeo, 262. Dis-sideo; see sedeo, 267, 2. Di-stinguo; see estinguo, 269. Di-sto, 259, N. 2. Ditesco, erc, -, 282. Divido, ere, visi, visum, 270. Do, dare, dedi, datum, 259. Docco, cre, ui, doctum, 263. Dolet, impers., 301. Domó, are, ui, itum, 258. Dono, 259. Duco, ere, duxi, etum, 269; 238. Dulcesco, ere, —, 282. Duplico, p. 123, foot-note 6. Duresco, ere, durui, —, 282, N.

## F

Edő, ere, édi, ésum, 272, 2; 291. Ef-fari, p. 142, foot-note 5. Egeô, ere, ui, —, 262, N. 1. E-liciò, ere, ui, itum, 273. E-ligó; see legé, 271, 2. E-mico; see mico, 258. Éminco, ère, ui, -, 262, N. 1. Emő, erc, čmi, čmptum, 271, 2. E-neco, are, ui, tum, 258. Eō, ire, īvī, itum, 295. Esurio, ire, —, itum, 284, N. 2. E-vado, ere, vási, vásum, 270. Ex-ardesco, ere, arsi, arsum, 281, N. Excello, ere, ui (rare), -, 273, N. Ex-cludo; see claudo, 270. Ex-curro; see carro, 272. Ex-olesco; see abolesco, 277. Expergiscor, i, experréctus sum, 283. Ex-perior, Irl, pertus sum, 288, 2. Ex-pleò; see compleò, 261. Ex-plico; see plico, 258. Ex-plodo; see plando, 270. Ex-stingué, ere, stiuxi, stinctum, 269. Ex-sto, 259, N. 2. Ex-tendó; see tendó, 271. Ex-tollo; see tollo, 271.

### Б

Facesso, ere, īvī, ī, ītum, 278. Fació, ere, féci, factum, 217, 1; 238; 271, 2, Fallo, ere, fefelli, falsum, 272. Farciò, ìre, farsi, fartum, farctum, 286. Fari, def., 297, 11. Fateor, eri, fassus sum, 268, 2. Fatisco, ere, -, 272, N. 2. Fatiscor, î, —, 283. Faveo, ere, favi, fautum, 266. Fendo, obs.; see defendo, 272, 3. Ferio, īre, —, 284, N. 2. Fero, ferre, tuli, latum, 292. Ferocio, ire, -, 284, N. 2. Ferveo, ère, fervi, ferbui, -, 267, 3. Fido, ere, fisus sum, 283. Figo, ere, fixi, fixum, 270. Findo, ere, fidī, fissum, 272, 3. Fingo, ere, finxī, fīctum. Finiō, 254. Fio, fieri, factus sum, 294. Fláveó, ére, —, 262, N. 2. Flecto, ere, flexī, flexum, 270. Fleo, ére, évi, étum, 261. Floreo, ere, ui, -, 262, N. 1. Floresco, ere, florui, —, 281. Fluo, ere, fluxi, fluxum, 279, N. Fodio, ere, fodi, fossum, 217, 1; 272, 2. Forem, def., 204, 2; 297, 111, 2. Foveo, erc, fovi, fotum, 266. Frangō, ere, frēgī, fráctum, 271, 2. Fremô, erc, ui, itum, 273. Frendő, ere, —, fréssum, frésum, 270. Frico, are, uī, atum, tum, 258. Frigeo, ère, frixî (rare). —, 265. Frondeo, ere, ui, —, 262, N. 1. Fruor, i, fructus, fruitus sum, 283. Fugio, ere, fügi, fugitum, 217, 1; 271, 2. Fulció, ire, fulsi, fultum, 286. Fulgeo, ère, fulsi, —, 265. Fulgo, 265, foot-note 5. Fulminat, impers., 300. Fundô, ere, fudî, fusum, 272, 2. Fungor, I, functus sum, 283. Furo, ere, ui, -, 273, N.

#### C.

Gannio, Ire, —, 284, N. 2.
Gaudeo, ère, gàvisus sum, 268, 3.
Geno, ere, ui, itum, 273.
Gero, ere, gessi, gestum, 269.
Gigno, ere, genui, genitum, 273.
Glisco, ere, —, 272, N. 2.
Gradior, I, gressus sum, 217, 3; 283.
Grandesco, ere, —, 282.
Grandmt. mpers., 300.
Gravesco, ere, —.

H

Habeō, 262.
Hacreō, ère, haesī, haesum, 265.
Hauriō, īre, hausī, hanstum, haustūrus, hausūrus, 286.
Havē, def., 297, III.
Hebeō, ēre, —, 262, N. 2.
Hiscō, ere, —, 272, N. 2.
Honorō, 257.
Horreō, ēre, ui, —, 262, N. 1.
Hortor, 232; 260.
Hūmeō, ēre, —, 262, N. 2.

Ĭ

Īcō, ere, īcī, īctum, 272, 3. I-gnosco; see *nosco*, 278. Il-licio, ere, Iexi, lectum, 217, 2. II-līdō; see *laedō*, 270. Imbuo, ere, ui, utum, 279. Immineō, ēre, —, 262, N. 2. Im-pareō; see parcō, 272. Im-pertior; see partior, 283. lm-pingō; see pangō, 271. lm-pleo, p. 124, foot-note 1. In-cendo; see accendo, 272, 3. Incessō, ere, īvī, ī, —, 278. In-eidō; see cadō, 272. In-cidō; see caedō, 272 In-crepă ; sec crepă, 258. In-cresco; see cresco, 277. In-cumbo; see accumbo, 273. In-cutio; see quatio, 270. Ind-igeō, ēre,  $\bar{u}_1$ , —; sec  $\epsilon g \epsilon \bar{o}$ , 262, N.1. Ind-ipiscor; see apiscor, 283. In-d $\bar{o}$ ; see  $abd\bar{o}$ ,  $\bar{2}71$ . Indulgeo, ere, dulsī, dultum, 264. Ineptio, ire, —, 284, N. 2. In-fero, 292, 2. Infit, def., 297, III. Ingruo, ere, i, -, 272, N. 1. In-notesco, ere, notni, 282, N. In-olesco; see abolesco, 277. Inquam, def., 297, 11. In-sideo; see sedeo, 267, 2. <u>Ī</u>n-spiciō, ere. spēxī, spēctum. Īn-stō; see  $star{o},~259$ . intel-legő; see legő, 271, 2. Interest, impers., 301. inter-nosco; see nosco, 278. In-veterasco, ere, rāvī, rātum, 281, N. Irascor, i, —, 283. Ir-ruo; see ruo, 279.

Jaciò, ere, jēcī, jactum, 217, 1; 271, 2. Jubeò, ēre, jūssī, jūssum, 265. Jūrō, 257, N. 2. Juvenescō, ere, —. Juvō, āre, jūvī, jūtum, 259, 2; 301. L

Lābor, ī, lāpsus sum, 283. Lacesso, ere, īvī, itum, 278. Lacio, obs.; see allicio, p. 130, footnoté 8; 217, 2. Lacteo, ere, —, 262, N. 1. Laedo, ere, laesī, laesum, 270. Lambō, ere, i, —, 272, N. 1. Langueo, êre, ī, -, 267, 3. Largior, îrî, îtus sum, 288. Lateo, êre, uî, —, 262, N. 1. Lavo, âre, lâvî, lautum, lotum, lavâtum, 259, 2. Lego, ere, legi, lectum, 271, 2. Lenio, 284. Libero, 257. Libet, impers., 299. Liccor, črī, itus sum, 268. Licet, impers., 299. Lino, ere, livi, levi, litum, 278. Linquo, ere, liqui, —, 271, 2. Liqueo, ere, liqui (licui), 267. Liquet, impers., 299. Liquor, i, —, 283. Loquor, i, locutus sum, 283. Lücco, ēre, lūxī, —, 265. Luceseit, impers., 300. Lūdo, ere, lūsī, lūsum, 270. Lügeő, ére, lüxi, —, 265. Luo, ere, lui, -.

11

Macresco, ere, macruī, —, 282, N. Madeō, čre, uī, —, 262, N. 1. Madesco, ere, madui. — Maereo, ére, —, 262, N. 2. Mālē, mālle, māluī, —, 293. Mando, ere, ī, mānsum, 272, 3. Mancō, ēre, mānsī, mānsum, 265. Maturesco, ere, maturui, -, 282, N. Medeor, ērī, —, 268, 2. Meminī, def., 297, I. Mentior, iri, itus sum, 288. Mereor, ērī, itus sum, 268. Mergo, ere, mersi, mersum, 270. Metior, iri, mensus sum, 288, 2. Metó, ere, messui, messum, 275. Metuó, ere, ui, -, 272, N. 1. Micō, āre, uī, —, 258. Miniscor, obs.; see comminiscor, 283. Minuo, ere, ui, útum, 279. Miror, 260. Miseco, ere, miseui, mistum, mixtum,

Misereor, eri, itus or tus sum, 268, 2.

Miscret, impers., 299.

Mitesco, ere, —, 282.

Mitto, ere, misī, missum, 270.

Molior, iri, itus sum, 288.

Mollescö, ere, —, 282.
Molé, ere, ui, itum, 273.
Moneo, ére, ui, itum, 207; 262.
Mordeó, ére, momordi, morsum, 267.
Morior, i (iri), mortuus sum, 217, 3; 283.
Moveó, ère, móvi, mötum, 266.

Moveó, ère, môvi, môtum, 266. Mulceó, ère, mulsi, mulsum, 265. Mulgeó, ère, mulsi, mulsum, 265. Multiplicó, p. 123, foot-note 6. Munió, 284.

#### N

Nanciscor, I, nactus (nanctus) sum, Nascor, i, natus sum, 283. Neco, p. 123, foot-note 4. Necto, ere, nexi, nexui, nexum, 270; Neg-lego, ere, lexi, lectum; see lego, 271, 2. Neo, ere, nevî, netum, 261. Ne-queo, ire, ivi, itum, 296. Nigresco, ere, nigrui, Ningo, ere, ninxi, -, 272, N. 1. Niteo, ere, ui, -, 262, N. 1. Nitor, i, nisus, nixus sum, 283. Noceō, 262. Nolo, nolle, noluī, —, 293. Nomino, 257. Nosco, ere, novi, notum, 278. Nūbo, ere, nupsī, nuptum, 269. Nüpturio, ire, ivi, —, 284, N. 2.

### O

Ob-do; see abdo, 271. Ob-dormisco, ere, dormivi, dormitum, Obliviscor, i, oblitus sum, 283. Ob-mütesco, ere, mütui, -, 282, N. Ob-sideo; see sedeo, 267, 2. Ob-solesco; see abolesco, 277. Ob-stō; sec stō, 259. Ob-surdesce, ere, surduī, —. Ob-tineo; see teneo, 263. Oe-cido; see cado, 272. Oc-cido; see caedo, 272. Oe-cino; see cano, 271. Oc-cipió ; see capió, 271, 2. Qeculo, ere, ui, tum, 274. Odi, def., 297, 1. Of-fendo; see defendo, 272, 3. Of-fero, 292, 2. Oleo, ere, ui, -, 262, N. 1. Olesco, obsolete; see abolesco, 277. Operio, ire, ui, tum, 285. Oportet, impers., 299. Op-perior, Iri, pertus, peritus sum, Ordior, Iri, orsus sum, 288, 2.

Orior, īrī, ortus sum, £88, 2. Os-tendo; see *tendo*, 271. Ovat, *def.*, 297, 111.

### P

Paciscor, ī, pactus sum, 283. Paenitet, impers., 299. Palleo, ère, ui, -, 262, N. 1. Pando, ere, i, pansum, passum, 272, 3. Pango, ere, pepigi, pactum, 271. Pango, erc, panxi, pegi, panctum, paetum, 271. Pareo, ere, peperer (parsi), parsum, Pareo, ēre, uī, itum, 262. Pario, ere, peperi, partum, 217, 1; Partior, īrī, ītus sum, 298. Parturio, ire, ivi, —, 284, N. 2. Pasco, ere, pavi, pastum, 276. Pateo, ère, ui, -, 262, N. 1. Patior, i, passus sum, 217, 3; 283. Paveo, ere, pavi, —, 266. Peeto, ere, pexi, pexum, 270. Pel-licio, ere, lexi, lectum, 217, 2. Pello, ere, pepuli, pulsum, 272. Pendeo, ere, pependi, pensum, 267. Pendo, ere, pependi, pensum, 272. Per-ago, p. 128, foot-note 13. Per-cello : see excello, 273, N. Per-censco; sec censco, 263. Per-dō, ere, didī, ditum; sec *abdō*, 271. Pergo (for per-rigo), ere, perrexi, perrectum; see rego, 269. Per-petior; see patior, 283. Per-sto; see *sto*, 259. Per-taedet, p. 143, foot-note 8. Per-tineo ; sec *teneo*, 263. Pessum-do, 259, N. 1. Peto, ere, ivī, itum, 278. Piget, *impers.*, 299. Piugō, ere, pinxī, pietum. Pinsó (piso), ere, i, ni, pinsitum, pīstum, pinsum, 272, 3; 273. Placco, 262; 301. Plandó, erc, si, sum, 270. Pleeto, ere, plexi, plexum, 270. Plector; see amplector 283. Pleo, obsolete; see compleò, 261. Plico, are, āvī, uī, atum, itum, 258. Pluo, ere, I or plavi, -, 272, N. 1; 300. Polleó, ére, —, 262, N. 2. Polliceor, ērī, itus sum, 268. Pōnō, ere, posuī, positum, 273. Poseo, ere, poposei, —, 272. Pos-sideo; see sedeo, 267, 2.

Possum, posse, potui, —, 290, II.

Potior, iri, itus sum, 288.

Pōtō, āre, āvī, ātum, um, 257, N. 1. Prac-cino: see cano, 271. Prae-curro; see curro, 272. Prae-sideo; see sedeo, 267, 2. Prae-sto; see sto, 259; 301. Prae-sum, 290, 1. Prae-vertor; see verto, 272, 3. Prandeo, ere, i, pransum, 267, 3. Prehendo, ere, i, housum, 272, 3. Premo, ere, pressi, pressum, 270. Préndo, p. 130, foot-note 1. Prod-igo; see ago, 271. Pro-do; see abdo, 271. Proficiscor, I, profectus sum, 283. Pro-fiteor; see fateor, 268, 2. Prēmē, ere, prēmpsī, prēmptum. Pro-sum, prodesse, profui, -, 290, HI. Pró-tendó; see tendő, 271. Psallo, ere, i, —, 272, N. 1. Pudet, impers., 299. Puerasco, ere, -, 282. Půgno, 257. Pungo, ere, pupugi, punctum, 271.

## Q

Punio, 284.

Quaerō, erc, quaesīvī, quaesītum, 278. Quaesō, def., 297, III. Quatio, erc, quassī, quassum, 217, 1; 270. Queō, ire, īvī, itum, 296 Queror, ī, questus sum, 283. Quieseō, erc, quiēvī, quiētum, 277.

#### T

Rādo, ere, rāsī, rāsum, 270. Rapio, ere, rapui, raptum, 217, 1; 274. Raucio, ire, rausi, rausum, 287. Re-censeo; see censeo, 263. Re-cido; see cado, 272. Re-cido; see caedô, 272. Re-crūdesco, ere, erūduī, 282, N. Red-arguó; see arguō, 279. Red-do; see abdō, 271. Re-fello; see fallo, 272. Re-fero ; see *fero*, 292. Refert, impers., 301. Rego, ere, rexi, rectum, 209; 269. Re-linquo; see linquo, 271, 2. Re-miniscor, 1, —, 283. Renideo, ere, —, 262, N. 2. Reor, reri, ratus sum, 268, 2. Re-pango; see pango, 271. Re-pareo; see parco, 272. Re-perio, ire, peri, pertum, 287, N. Re-plico, p. 123, foot-note 6. Re-sideo; see sedeo, 267, 2. Re-sipco; see sapiō, 278.

Re-sonő; see sonő, 258.
Re-spergő; see spargő, 270.
Re-spondeő, 255, 1, 4.
Re-tendő; see tendő, 271.
Re-tuneő; see teneő, 263.
Re-vertor; see vertő, 272, 3.
Re-viviseő, ere, vixi, victum, 281, N.
Rideő, ére, risi, risum, 265.
Ringor, 1, rictus sum, 283.
Rodó, ere, rősi, rősum, 270.
Rorat, impers., 300.
Rubeo, ére, ui, -, 262, N. 1.
Rudő, ere, ivi, itum, 278.
Runpó, ere, rűyi, ruptum, 271, 2.
Ruo, ere, rui, rutum, ruitűrus, 279.

#### 2

Saepiō, īre, psī, ptum, 286. Sagio, ire, -, 284, N. 2. Salio, ire, ui (ii), tum, 285. Salvē, def., 297, 111. Sancio, ire, sanxi, sancitum, sanctum. 286. Sapio, ere, īvī, uī, —, 217, 1; 278. Sarcio, ire, sarsi, sartum, 286. Sat-agō; see agō, 271, 2. Satis-dō, 259, N. 1. Satis-fació, p. 129, foot-note 1. Scabo, ere, scabī, —, 271, 2. Scando, erc, di, scansum, 272, 3. Scindo, ere, scidi, scissum, 272, 3. Sciō, 284. Scisco, ere, scivi, scitum, 281, N. Seco, are, uī, tum, 258." Sedeo, ere, sedi, sessum, 267. Sē-ligo; see legō, 271, 2. Sentio, ire, sensi, sensum, 287. Sepelio, īre, īvī, sepultum, 284. Sequor, i, secutus sum, 283. Sero, ere, sevi, satum, 277, N. Sero, ere, serui, sertum, 274. Sido, ere, i, -, 272, N. 1. Sileo, ere, ui, -, 262, N. 1. Sino, ere, sīvī, situm, 278. Sisto, ere, stiti, statum, 271. Sitio, îre, îvî, --, 284. Soleo, ere, solitus sum, 268, 3. Solvo, ere, solvī, solutum, 272, 3. Sonō, āre, uī, itum, 258. Sorbeo, ere, ui, -, 262, N. 1. Sortior, Irī, itus sum, 288. Spargō, ere, sparsī, sparsum, 270. Specio, obs., 217, 2. Spernő, ere, sprévi, sprétum, 277. Spērē, 257. Splendeo, ere, ui, -, 262, N. 1. Spondeo, ere, spopondi, sponsum, Squaleo, cre, --, 262, N. 2.

Statuo, ere, ui, ūtum, 279. Sterno, ere, stravi, stratum, 276. Sternuo, ere, i, -, 272, N. 1. Sterto, ere, ui, -, 273, N. Stinguō, ere, —, p. 127, foot-note 3. Stō, are, stetī, stātum, 259. Strepo, ere, ui, itum, 273. Strīdeo, ēre, strīdī, —, 267, 3. Strīdo, ere, ī, —, 272, N. 1. Struo, ere, struxī, structum, 279, N. Studeo, ere, ui, —, 262, N. 1. Stupeo, ere, ui, —, 266. Suideo, ère, si, sum, 265. Sub-do, ere, didi, ditum; see abdo, Sub-igō; sec *agō*, 271, 2 Sub-silio; see salio, 285. Suc-cedo; see cedo, 270. Suc-cendo; see accendo, 272, 3. Sue-conseo; see censeo, 263. Sue-cidō; see cadō, 272. : uc-cido : see caedo, 272. Sue-eresco; see cresco, 277. Su seo, ere, suevi, suetum, 277. Sui-ferő, 292, 2. Sui-ficio; see facio, 271, 2. Suf-fodio; see fodio, 272, 2. Sug-gero; see gero, 269. Sum, esse, fui, —, 203, 1; 204. Samo, ere, psi, ptum, 269. Superbio, ire, -, 284, N. 2. Super-jacio, p. 129, foot-note 2. Supplied, 258, foot-note. Sup-pono; see pono, 273. Surgo (for sur-rigo), ere, surrexi, surrectum; see rego, 269.

т

Taceō, 262.
Tacedet, impers., 299.
Taugo, ere, tetigi, tietum, 271.
Tenmo, ere, —, 272, N. 2.
Tendō, ere, tetendi, tentum, tēnsum, 271.
Teneō, ēre, ut, tum, 263.
Tepescō, ere, tepni, —, 281.
Tergeō, ēre, tersi, tersum, 265; p. 128, foot-note 3.
Tergō, ere, tersi, tersum, 270.
Terō, ere, tersi, tritum, 278.
Texō, ere, ut, tum, 274.
Timeō, ēre, ui, —, 262, N. 1.
Tollō, ere, sustull, sublatum, 271.

Tondeō, čre, totondī, tōnsum, 267.
Tonō, āre, ui (itum), 258; 300.
Torpeō, čre, ui, —, 262, N. 1.
Torqueō, čre, torsi, tortum, 264.
Torreo, čre, torrui, tostum, 263.
Trā-dō; see abdō, 271.
Trubō, ere, traxī, tractum, 269.
Tremō, ere, ui, itum, 279.
Trūdō, ere, trūxī, trūsum, 270.
Tueor, ērī, tuitus, tūtus sum, 268.
Tundō, ere, tuudī, tūnsum, 270.
Turgō, ēre, tursī (rarc), —, 265.
Tursō, ēre, tursī (rarc), —, 265.
Tussō, īre, 254, N. 2.

#### U

Ulciscor, ī, ultus sum, 283. Urgeō, ēre, ursī, —, 265. Ūrō, ere, ūssī, ūstum, 269. Ūtor, ī, ūsus sum, 283.

### V

Vádo, ere, —, 272, N. 2. Vagio, īre, īvī, —, 284. Vehō, ere, vēxī, vēctum, 269. Vello, ere, vellī (vulsī), vulsum, 272, 3. Vēndō, ere, didī, ditum, 271. Vēn-cō, 295, 3. Venio, ire, veni, ventum, 287, N. Venum-do, 259, N. 1. Vereor, čri, veritus sum, 268. Vergo, ere, —, 272, N. 2. Verio, ere, verri, versum, 272, 3. Vertô, ere, ti, sum, 272, 3. Vertor; see verto, 272, 3. Vescor, i, —, 283. Veterāsco, ere, rāvī, —, 276. Vetô, âre, uĩ, itum, 258. Video, čre, vidi, visum, 267, 2. Vīlescō, ere, viluī, --, 252, N. Vincio, īre, vinxī, vinctum, 286. Vinco, ere, vici, victum, 271, 2. Vireō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1. Viresco, ere, viruī, —, 281. Viso, ere, i, um, 272, 3. Vivo, ere, vixi, victum, 269. Voco, 257. Volō, velle, voluī, —, 293. Volvē, ere. volvī, volūtum, 272, 3. Vomo, erc, ul, itum, 273. Voveo, ere, vovi, votum, 266.

# INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

Note — The numbers refer to articles, not to pages. Acc. or accus, = accusative: adis. = adictives: comp. = composition: compds. = compounds: coni. = conjugation:conjunc = conjunctions; constr. = construction; ff. = and the following; gen, or genit, = genitive; gend. = gender; ger. = gerund; loc. or locat. = locative; preps. = prepositions:  $w_{\cdot} = with$ .

It has not been thought advisable to overload this index with such separate words as may be readily referred to classes, or to general rules, or even with such exceptions as may be readily found under their respective heads. Accordingly, the numerous exceptions in Dec. III, are not inserted, as they may be best found under the respective endings. 69-115.

A,  $\bar{a}$ , sound, 5; 10 ff.  $\bar{A}$  final shortened, 21, 2. - A in nom., accus., and voc. pl., 46, 2, 1). A-nouns, Decl. I., 48; a-verbs, 205. Nouns in -a, Decl. III., 69; quant. of increm., 585, I., 3; gender, 111. - A, adverbs in, 304, 1., 3. - $\overline{A}$ , prepositions in, p. 145, foot-note 11; p. 149, foot-note 2; adverbs in, 304, II., 2. -A, -a, suffix, 320. -A, derivatives in, 326, A, changed in compds., 344, 4, N. 1. A or ā, final, 580, I.; 580, III., N. 2; 581, III.; in increm. of decl.,585; 585, L.; conj.,586; 586, L. A, ab, abs, in compds., 344, 5; in compds., w. dat., 386, 2; w. abl., 434, N. 1. Ab, as adverb, 379, 2, N. \(\bar{A}\), ab, abs, with abl., 434; 434, I.; of agent, 388, 2; 415, l. A, ab, abs, 434, N. 2. A, ab, abs, designating abode, 446, N. 4.  $\overline{A}$ , ab, w. ger., p. 316, foot-note 1. Abbreviations, 649, 1; 650.

Abhine, denoting interval, p. 230, foot-note 2; 430, N. 3.

Ahies, ēs in, 581, Vl., 1.

-ābilis, ā in, 587, III., 2.

ABLATIVE, sing., original ending of, p. 20, foot-note 5. Abl. sing. in Decl. III., 62, II. ff. ; 63, 2; 64, N. 3; in adjs., 154, notes 1 and 2; 157, N. Abl. plur., Decl. I., 49, 4; Decl. III., 68, 5; Decl. IV., 117.

ABLATIVE, translation of, 48, w. footnote 4. Relations denoted, 367. Syntax, 411 ff. Abl. w. locat., 363, 4, 2); w. adjs., 391, II., 3; 400, 3; w. refert, 408, I., 2; w. verbs of accusing, etc., 410, II., 3; w. verbs of condemning, 410, III. Abl. of place, 412; 425 ff.; separation, source, cause, 413 ff. Abl. w. comparat., 417. Instrumental abl., 418 ff. Abl. of accompaniment, 419; means, 420. Abl. in special constructions, 421. Abl. of price, 422; difference, 423; specification, 424. Locative abl., 425 ff. Abl. of time, 429. Abl. abs., 431. Abl. w. preps., 432; 434; 435; w. compds., 434, N. 1; w. adverbs, 437. Infin. in abl. abs., 439, IV.

Ablative sing, in a, 581, III., 1.

-**ābrum**,  $\bar{a}$  in, 587, l., l. Abs, in compds., 344, 5. Abs w. abl., 434; 434, N. 2.

Absente, constr., 428, 6, N. Absolute Abl., 431.

Absolvo, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Absque, w. abl., 434.

Abstineo, constr., p. 211, foot-note 5. Abstract nouns, 89, 2, 2); plur., 130, 2 and 3. Abstract nouns from adjs.,

Absum, w. dat., p. 200, foot-note 2. Abest, constr., p. 276, foot-note 2. Abunde, w. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3.

-ābundus, ā in, 587, III., 2. -ābus for -is, Decl. I., 49, 4.

Ac, 310, 1; 554, L; meaning as, 451, 5; than, 459, 2; 554, I., 2, N. Ac sī, 311, 2; w. subj. in conditions. 513, II.

Acatalectic, 603, N. 3. Accent, rhytlimic, 599. Accentuation, 17 ff.

Accidit, constr., p. 276, foot-note 2. Accingo, constr., 377.

Accommodatus w. dat., p. 205, footnote 1.

Accompaniment, abl. of, 418 ff.

Accusative, formation of, Deel. Il., 51, 2, 6); Deel. III., 58, 1, 5); 62, H. ff.; 63, 1; 64, N. 2; 67, N. 2; 68, 2 and 6; in adjs., 154, N. 1; 158, 1.

Accusative, syntax of, 370 ff. Direct object, 371 ff.; cognate, 371, I. and II.; acc. of effect, 371, I., 2, 2); w. verbal adjs. and nouns, 371, I., N.; w. compds., 372. Two accs., 373 ff. Predicate acc., 373, 1. Poetic Adverbial acc., 378 ff. acc., 377. Acc. of specification, 378; of time and space, 379; of limit, 380; poetical dat, for, 380, 4. Acc. in exclam., 381. Acc. for gen., 407. Acc. w. refert and interest, 408, I., 3; w. preps., 432; 433; 435; w. adverbs, 437; as object, w. infin., 534. Acc. as subj. of infin., 536. Acc. of ger., 542, HI.

Accusative, Greek, in -as, 591, V., 2. Ace. plur. in -ūs, 551, IX., 2. Accusing, constr. w. verbs of, 409,

H.; 410, H. Acer, deel., 153.

-āceus, adjs. in, 329; ā in, 587, III.,1. Acies, deel., 122, 2.

Acquitting, constr. w. verbs of, 409, II.

**ācrum**, ā in, 587, I., 1.

Action, repeated, in temp. clauses, 518, N. 2, 2); 518, 1. Active voice, 195. Active and passive

constr., 464. -ācundus, ā in, 587, III., 2.

steus, deel., 117, 1; gend., 118. Ad in compds., 344, 5; in compds. w. two aces., 376; w. dat., 386. Ad w. acc., 433; 433, I.; atter adjs., 391, II., 1; w. refert and interes, 408, L, 3. Ad designating abode, 446, N. 4. Ad w. ger., p. 315, foot-note 5; denoting purpose, 542, III., N. 2. Adeo, 551, N. 2; 554, I., 4.

-ades, a in, 587, II., 1.

Adjatim w. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3; quant. of pen., p. 345, foot-note 2. Adricio w. abl., 420, 2.

Adfinis w. gen., p 205, foot-note 3; p. 210, foot-note 3.

Adipiscor w. gen., 410, V., 3

Adjaceo w. ace. or dat., p. 202, footnote 1.

Adjective, 146; decl. of, 147 ff.; ir-

regular, 151; 159. Compar., 160 ff. Numerals, 172 ff.; deel. of, 175 ff. Demon., 186, 4. Rel., 187, 4. Inter., 188, 4. Derivation, 328 ff. Composition, 342. W. dat., 391; 400, 1; w. gen., 397, 3; 399; of gerund, p. 315, foot-note 2. Adj. for gen., 395, N. 2. Adj. w. abl., 400, 3; 414, III.; 416; 420; 421. Agreement, 438 fl. Use, 440. W. force of substantives, 441; of clauses, 442; of adverbs, 443. Compar., use, 444. Adj. separated from noun, 565, 3 and 4. Position of modifiers of adj., 566; of adj. w. gen., 565, 2.

Admisceo w. dat., 385, 3; p. 201,

toot-note 1.

Admodum, 304, I., 2. Adinoneo, constr., 374, 2; p. 274, footnote 1.

Admonishing, constr. w. verbs of, 409, I.; 410, I.

Adolescens, compar., 168, 4. Adonie verse, 628, I.

Adopted son, how named, 649, 3. Ador, quant. of increm., 555, H., 1.

Adulor w. acc. or dat., p. 202, footnote 1.

Adulter, deel., 51, 4, 3).

Adverbial acc., 378. Adverbial com-

parison, 170.

ADVERBS, 303 ff. Numeral adverbs. Compar., 206. Adverbs w. nouns, 359, N. 4; 443, N. 4; w. dat., 392; w. gen., 397, 4. Adverbs as preps., 437. Adverbs for adjs., 443, N. 3. Use of adverbs, 551 if. Position of modifiers of adverb, 568. Adverb between prep and case, 569, II., 3.  $-\bar{E}$ , in adverbs, 581, IV., 4. Adverb redundant, 636, HL, 7.

Adversative conjunes., 310, 3; 554, Advers, asyndeton, p. 570,

foot-note 1.

Adversum, adversus, w. acc., 433. Ae, sound, 6; 12; changed to i, 344, 4, N. 2

Aedes, sing, and plur., 132.

Aeger, decl., 150.

Ategre fero, constr., p. 310, foot-note 2. Aeneas, deel., 50.

Aequālis w dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.

Aequi facere, 401, N. 4. Arr, quant. of increm., 585, III., 4.

Aetas, deel., 58.

Aether, quant, of increm., 585, III., 4. -aeus, adjs. in., 331.

Age, expression of, p. 222, foot-note 4. Ages of Lat. literature, 640.

Age, interj., p. 152, foot-note 4. Agent, abl. of, with  $\bar{a}$  or ab, 388, 2; 415, I. Dat. of, 388.

Ager, decl., 51.

-aginta, quant. of antepen., 587, III., 3.

Agnomen, 649, 2 and 3.

Agnomination, 637, XI., 7. Ago ut, 498, II., N. 2; id ago w. subj.,

p. 274, foot-note 2. -āgō, nouns in, 324, N.; 327, 4, N.;

ā in, 587, I., 2. Agreeable, dat. w. adjs. signifying,

AGREEMENT, of Nouns, 362 ff. Pred. noun, 362; in gend., 362, 1. Appositive, 363; in gend., 363, 1. Of adject., 438 ff.; w. clause, 438, 3; synesis, 438, 6; w. one noun for another, 438, 7; w. two or more nouns, 439; w. part. gen., 397, 3, N. 1. Of pronouns, 445; w. two or more antecedents, 445, 3; attraction, 445, 4; synesis, 445, 5; w. clause, 445, 7. Of verbs, 460 ff.; synesis, 461; w. appos. or pred. noun, 462; w. compd. subject, 463.  $\bar{A}h$ ,  $ah\bar{a}$ , 312.

-āī for -ae, 49, 2; ā in, 577, I., 1, (1). Aio for agio, p. 19, foot-note 8; posi-

tion, 569, V

-**āis** in prop. names, ā in, 577, 5, N.; 587, I., 3.

-**āl** final shortened, 21, 2, 2). in -al, 63; 65, 2; quant, of increm., 585, I., 1. - Al in Plautus for -al, 580, III., N. 2.

Alacer, deel., 153, N. 1; superlat.

wanting, 168, 3.

Albus, without compar., 169, 4. Alcaie verse, 604, N. 1; 628, VIII. and IX.; 619, 1. Alcaie stanza, 631, 1.

Alemanian stanza, 631, XIX.; 631,

Atec, alex, quant. of increm., 585, III.,

-ālia, names of festivals in, 136, 3. Alicubi, alicunde, 305.

Aliènus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3.

Aliqua, aliquam, aliquando, 305.

Aliquantus, 191.

Aliqui, use, 455, 1. Aliquis, 190, 2; 191; use of, 455. Aliquo, 305, II.

Aliquot, 191.

Aliquotiens, aliquovorsum, 305.

-ālis, adjs. in, 330; compar., 168. 2; 169, 3. Ā in -ālis, 587, 1., 4.

Aliud-nihil aliud nisi, nihil aliua quam, 555, III., 1.

Alius, decl., 151; w. abl., 417, 1, N. 4. Use of alius, 459. Alius-alium, w. pl. verb, 461, 3.

Allegory, 637, II., 1. Alliteration, 637, XI., 1.

Allobrox, quant, of increm., 585, II., 3. Alphabet, 2 ff. Letters of, indeel., 128, 1.

Alter, deel., 151. Alter for secundus, p. 66, foot-note 4. Use of alter, 459. Alter-alterum, w. pl. verb, 461, 3. Alteruter, decl., 151, N. 2.

Alvus, gend., 53, 1.

-am in adverbs, 304, I., 3, 2). Amāus, deel., 157.

Ambi, amb, insep. prep., 308; in compds., 344, 6.

Ambō, decl., 175, N. 2.

Amicus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. I in amicus, p. 345, foot-note 4. Amnis, deel., 62, IV.

Amphiaraides, i in, p. 345, foot-note 3, Amphora, 648, III.

Amplins without quam, 417, 1, N. 2. Amyclīdēs, i in, p. 345, foot-note 3.

An, 310, 2, N.; 311, 8; 353. An =

'whether not,' 529, II., 3, N. 2;

= aut, 529, II., 3, N. 3. A in an, 579, 3.

-an, suffix, 320, I. -**āna**, ā in, 587, l., 5.

Anaeoluthon, 636, IV., 6.

Anacrusis, 618, N. 3. Analysis of verbal endings, 241 ff. Anapaest, 597, N. 1; cyclic, 598, 1, 4).

Anaphorá, 636, 111., 3. Anas, as in, 581, V., 1; quant. of increm., 585, L., 4, (2).

Anastrophe, 636, V., 1.

Ancient forms of pronouns, 184, 5; of verbs, 240.

Ancile, deel., 136, 3. Androgeos, decl., 54.

-**āneus**, ā in, 587, III., 1.
Anguis, deel., 62, IV.

Anhelitus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 2.

Animal, deel., 63. Animi, constr., 399, III., 1; 410, V., 2.

Anio, quant. of increm., 585, 111., 2. Annon, 310, 2, N.; 353, 2, N. 3. Answers, 352.

-ant, suffix, 320, I.

Ante in compds., 344, 5; in compds. w. dat., 386. Ante w. acc., 433; 433, 1.; denoting interval, 436. Ante w. ger., p. 315, foot-note 5. Anteā, 304, IV., N. 2. Antecedent, 445, N.; omitted, 445, 6

Clause as anteced., 445, 7. Anteend. attracted, 445, 9.

Anteced) w. acc. or dat., p. 202, footnote 1.

Ante-classical period, 640, I.

Anteeo in synaeresis, 608, 111., N. 1; w. acc. or dat., p. 202, foot-note 1. Antehac, 304, IV., N. 2.

Antequam, 311, 1; in temp. clauses, 520.

Anticipation, prolepsis, 440, 2; 636, IV., 3.

Anticus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 4. Antimeria, 636, IV., 1.

-ānus, adjs. in, 330; 331; ā in, 587,

Anxiety, constr. w. verbs of, 498, 111. -āōn in prop. names, ā in, 577, 5, N. Apage, interj., 312, 4.

Aphaeresis, 635, 1.

Apis, genit. plur., p. 36, foot-note 3.

Apocope, 635, 3. Apophasis, 637, X1., 2.

Aposiopesis, 636, 1., 3; 637, XI., 3.

Apostrophe, 637, X. Apparent agent, 388.

Appendix with short increm., p. 343, foot-note 2.

Appendix, 634 ff.

Apposition, partitive, 364. in apposition, 501, III. Clauses

Appositional genitive, 396, VI.

Appositive, 359, N. 2; agreement of, 363; in gend., 363, 1; force of, 363, Infin. as appos., 539, 11.

Apricus, i m, p. 345, loot-note 4. Aptus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Aptus qui w. subj., 503, 11., 2.

Apud w. acc., 433; 433, L.; designat-

ing abode, 446, N. 4.

·Ar final shortened, 21, 2, 2). Nouns in ar, 63; 65, 2; quant. of increm., 585, L., 1. Gend, of nouns in ar.  $\tilde{a}r$ , 111; 112.  $-\tilde{A}r$  in Plautus for -ar, 580, 111., N. 2.

Arar, Araris, deel., 62, 111., 1.

Arbor, quant, of increm., 585, Il., 3. Arced w. dat., p. 200, foot-note 2.

Archilochian verse, 604, N. 1; 628, X.; 616, N.; 617, N.; 619, N.; stanza, 631, XI. and XII.; 631, XIV. and XV.

Arcus, decl., 117, 1.

Arenae, locat., 426, 2, N. Aries, es in, 581, VI., 1.

-āris, adjs. in, 330; compar., 169, 3. A in -aris, 587, I., 6.

Aristophanie verse, 628, II.

arium, nouns in, 323; ā in, 587, 111., 1.

-ārius, nouns in, 324; adjs. in, 330; ā in, 587, 111., 1.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND Clauses, 559 ff.; words, 560 fl.; gen. rules, 560 ff.; effect of emphasis and cuphony, 561; chiasmus, 562; kindred words, 563; words w. com, relation, 564; special rules, 565 ff.; modifiers of nouns, 565; adjs., 566; verbs, 567; adverbs, 568; special words, 569; demon., 569, I.; preps., 569, II.; conjunes, and relat., 569, 111.; non, 569, IV.; inquam, āiō, 569, V.; voc., 56, VI.; elauses, 570 fl.; as subj. or pred., 571; subord. elements, 572; periods, 573.

Arsis, 600. Article, 48, 6.

Artus, deel., 117, 1, 2); p. 50, footnote 1.

-ārus, ā in, 587, I., 6. Arr, decl., 64.

Aryan languages, 638.

-ās in genit., Decl. I., 49, 1 Nouns in -as, Deel. 1., 50; Deel. III., 64, 2, 3); decl., 79. Gender of nouns in -as, -as, 105, 106. -Ās in adverbs, 304, 1., 3, 2). -As, sutlix, 320, 1. -As, adjs. in. 331. Quant. 320, 1. - As, adjs. in. 331. Quant. of -ās, -as, 580, III.; 581, V.; ā in voc. of nouns in, 581, III., 2. Quant. of increm. of nouns in -as, 585, 1., 3.

 $ar{As}$ , 646; 648, L Asclepiadean verse, 628, IV. and V.;

631, IV.-VIII. Asking, construction w. verbs of, 374.

Asper, decl., 150, N. Aspergo, constr., p. 198, foot-note 1.

Aspirate, 3, II., 3.

-**āssim** in perf. subj., 240, 4. Assimilation of vowels, 25; of consonants, 33; 34.

Assimi/is w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3.  $\overline{A}seis$ , constr., p. 213, foot note 3.

-**āssō** in fut. perf., 240, 4.

Asyndeton, 636, L. 1. At, 310, 3; 554, 111., 2.

-at, neut. stems in, 58, 2. -At in Plantus for -at, 580, 111., N. 2. Atat, interp., 312, 1.

-**āticus**, ā in, 587, III., 2.

-**ātilis**, quant. of pen., 587, 11., 5; antepen., 587, 111., 2.

-ātim, a in, 587, l., 7.

Atque, 310, 1; 554, I.; meaning as, 451, 5; than, 459, 2; 554, L, 2, N. Cue-atque, 554, 1., 5.

Atqui, 310, 3; 554, 111., 2.

-ā.trum, ā in, 587, l., l.

Attamen, 554, III., 3. Attraction, 636, IV., 5; of pron., 445,

4 and 8; of anteced., 445, 9.

Attributive adj., 438, 2. -ātus, nouns in, 324; ā in, 587, 1., 7.

Au, interj., 312, 3. Au, sound, 6; 12; changed in compds., 344. 4. N. 3.

Audax, deel., 156.

Audiens w. two dats., 390, N. 3. Audio w. pred. noun, 362, 2, N. 1;

w. infin., 535, I., 1.

Aureus, 646.

Ansim for auserism, 240, 4. Ant, 310, 2; 554, II., 2. Ant—ant, 554, II., N. Position of aut in poetry, 569, III., N.

Autem, 310, 3; 554, III., 2 and 4; position, 569, III.

Authors, Latin, 640.

Autonomasia, 637, III., 1.

Auxilium, auxilia, 132.

Aversion, gen. w. adjs. of, 399, 1., 1. Avidus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2; other constrs., 400.

Aris, decl., 62, IV.  $-\bar{z}$ vus,  $\bar{a}$  in, 587. L., 6.

-ax, gen. of nouns in, 91; verbals in, 333; w. ger., 399, H. Quant. of merem. of words in -ax, 585, 1., 4, (3).

Axo for egero, 240, 4.

B, sound, 7, N.; changed to p, 33, 1; to m, 33, 3, N.; 34, 3. Quant. of monosyl. in, 579, 2.

Baccar, quant. of increm., 585, 1., 4, (1).

Bacchius, 597, N. 1.

Becoming, two dats, w. verbs of, 390, N. 1, 1).

Beginning, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., Beginning of sentence emphatic, 561, I.

Being, two dats. w. verbs of, 390, N. Being able, wont, accus-1, 1). tomed, constr. w. verbs of, 533, 1., 2.

Belides, i in, p. 345, foot-note 3. Believing, verbs of, w. dat., 385, II. Infin. w. verbs of, 535, I., 1, (2).

Bellum, decl., 51, 8. Belli, locat., 51, 8: 426, 2.

Belonging to, gen. w. adjs. signifying, 391, 4.

Bene, compar., 306, 2; compds. w. dat., 384, 4, N. 1. E final in bene, 581, IV., 4.

Benefiting, verbs of, w. dat., 385, I. -ber, p. 155, foot-note 1; names of months in, 65, 1, 1).

Bibī, i in, 590, 1. Bilis, deel., 62, IV

-bilis, p. 155, foot-note 1; verbals in, 333; w. dat., 391, I.; compar., 168, 1. Quant. of pen. of -bilis, 587, 11., 5. Bis, i in, 579, 3.

Boni facere, consulere, 401, N. 4. Lonus, deel., 148, compar., 165.

Bos, decl., 66; quant. of increm., 581, 11., 3.

Brachylogy, 636, II. Brazen age, 640, III., 1.

-**brum**, nouns in, 327. -bs, decl. of nouns in, 86. Bubae, interj., 312, 1.

Bucolic diaeresis, 611, 2; bucol. caesura, p. 356, foot-note 5.

-bulum, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 1; nouns in, 327.

-bundus, verbals in, 333.  $B\bar{u}ris$ , deel., 62, H. Buying, gen. w. verbs of, 405.

C in place of G, 2, 1 and 3. Sound of c, 7; 13. C changed to g, 33, 2; dropped, 36, 3. Nouns in c, 74. Gend., 111. Quant. of final syllables m c, 580, 11., w. N. 1.

-**cā**, suffix, 320, H. Caecus, superl. wanting, 168, 3. Caelum, plur., 143, 1.

Caesura, caesural pause, 602. Calcar, decl., 63.

Calendar, Roman, 641 ff. Calends, 642, 1., 1.

Calix w. short inerem., p. 343, footnote 2.

Calling, verbs of, w. two aces., 373. Campester, decl., 153, N. 1. Canis, deel., p. 36, foot-note 3. Capitis w. verbs, 410, III., N. 2. Cappadox, quant. of increm., 585, II.,

Capsō for cepero, 240, 4.

Caput, deel., 58. Carbasus, gend., 53, 1; plur., 142. Carcer, carceres, 132.

Cardinals, 172; 174; decl., 175 ff.

Carmen, decl., 60. Carô, deel. 64, N. 1.

Carus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. abl., p. 226, foot-note 1.

Cases, Etymology of, 45 ff. Cases alike, 46, 2. Case suffixes, 46, 1; in Deel. 111., 57; 67. Case end-

ings, 47, N. 3; in Deel. I., 48; Deel. II., 51, 2, 3); Decl. III., 67; for *i*-stems, 62, I., 2; Decl. IV., 116; Decl. V., 120; pronouns, 184, 1. Irregular case endings, Decl. I., 49; Decl. II., 52; Decl. III., 67, N.; Decl. IV., 117; Decl. V., 121.

Cases, SYNTAX OF, 362 II. General view, 365. Nominat., 368. Vocat., 369. Accusat., 370 ff. Dat., 382 ff. Gen., 393 tl. Abl., 411 ff. w. preps., 432 ff.

Castrum, castra, 132.

Catalectic, 603, notes 3 and 5.

Causa, p. 221, foot-note 2.

Causal adverbs, 305, N. 2, 4); conjunctions, 310, 5; 311, 7; 554, V.; 555, VII. Causal clauses, 516; 517; w. qued, etc., 516; w. cam and qui, 517.

Cause, gen. of, 399, III., 2; abl., 413; Cause expressed by particip., 416.

549, 1.

Careo, constr., 385, 1. Care w. subj. for imperat., 489, 2); w. ne omitted. 499. 2. E in care, 581, IV., 3.

-ce, appended, 156, 1 and 2. Ceciai, quant. of pen., 591, 1. Cedo, o in, 551, II., 1.

Celeber, celer, decl., 153, N. 1.

Celo, constr., 374, 2

Celtiber, decl., 51, 4, 3); quant. of increm., 585, III., 3.

-cen, compds. in, 341, 1.

Censea, constr., p. 274, foot-note 1. -ceps, genit. plur. of adjs. in, 155, 2, 3); compds, in. 342, 1.

-cer, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 1.

Ceres, és in, 581, VI., 1.

Certo w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1. Certus w. gen., p. 210, foot note 3. Citer, citerus, detective, 159, II.; meaning, 440, N. 2.

Ceterum, 310, 3; 554, III., 2. Ch, sound, 7, N.; 13, L., 2.

Changes in consonants, 30 ff. Characteristic, stem-characteristic, nouns, 46, 3; verbs, 201. Gen. of characteristic, 396, V.; abl., 419, H.;

419, 2, Chiasmus, 562; 636, V., 4. U def caesura, p. 357, foot-note 1.

Choliambus, 622, 4.

Choosing, verbs of, w. two aces., 373; w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2).

Choree, p. 350, foot-note 2. Choriambus, 597, N. 1.

-cida, compds. in, 341, 1.

Cilix, w. short increm., p. 343, footnote 2.

Cingo, constr., 377.

-cino, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 8.

-cinus, adjs. in, 830, 1.

-ciō, nouns in, 321, N.

Circa, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. acc., 433; 433, I.; of ger., p. 315, footnote 5.

Circiter w. aec., 433; 433, I.

Circum, p. 149, foot-note 2: in compds., 344, 5; compds. w. acc., 372; w. two accs., 376; w. dat., 386, 2. *Circum* w. acc., 433; 433, 1.

Circumdo, circumfundo, constr., p. 198, foot-note 1.

Circumlocutions w. res, genus, modus,

ratió, 636, 111., 10. Cis w. acc., 433; 433, I.; i in, 579, 3.

Citerior, compar., 166.

Cities, plur, in names of, 131, N.

Cito, o in, 541, II., 1. Citra, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. acc., 433; 433, I.

Citum, i in, 590, 1.

Ciris, deel., 62, IV. Clam w. acc. or abl., 437, 3.

Clans, Roman, how designated, 331,

N. 2.

Classical period, 640, II.

Classification of letters, 3; verbs,

Classis, deel., 62, IV.

Claudus, not compared, 169, 4.

Clauses, 348, N. 1; as nouns, gend., N. Prin, and sub, clauses, 348, N. 2 Clause as object, 371, IV.; as abl., abs., 431, N. 1; as anteced., 445, 7. Object clauses of purp., 498. Subst. clauses of purp., 499, 3; of result, 501. Restrictive clauses w. quod, 503, L. N. 1. Conditional clauses, 513; concess., 514 if.; temp., 518 ff.; principal, in indir, disc., 523; subord., 524. Indirect clauses, 528 ff. Substantive clauses, 532 ff.; Relat, clauses supplied by particip., 549, 4. Prin. clauses supplied by particip., 549, 5. Arrang. ot clauses, 570 ff.

Clāvis, deel., 62, 111.

Clinax, deel., 64. Clinax, 657, VI.

Close vowels, 3, I., 3. Clothing, constr. w. verbs of, 277.

-co, suffix, 320, 11.

Cognate acc., 371, I. and II.

Cognomen, 649.

Cogo, constr., 350, N.; p. 274, footnote 2

Coins, Roman, 646.

-cola, compds. in, 341, 1.

Collecting, constr. w. verbs of, 380, N. Collective nouns, 39, 2, 1); w. plur. verb, 461, 1.

Collis, decl., 62, IV.

Colloco, constr., 380, N.

Colus, gend., 53, 1; 118; decl., 119, 2. Com in compds., 344, 5; w. dat., 386. Coming together, constr. w. verbs of, 380, N.

Comitium, comitia, 132.

Command, dat. w. verbs signifying to, 385, I.; infin. after, 535, II. Subj. of command, 483 ff.

Commiserescit, commiseretur, constr.,

410, IV., N. 1.

Common nouns, 39, 2. Common quan-

tity, 16, III.; 575.

Communis w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3.

Commūto, constr., 422, N. 2.

Comparative conjunes., 311, 2; 555, II. Comparat. degree, 160; decl., 154; wanting, 167; formed by *magis*, 170. Comparat. w. gen., 397, 3; w. abl., 417; w. *quam*, 417, 1. Use, 444. Comparat. w. *quam* and subj., 503, II., 3. *O* in increm. of comparat., 585, II., 1.

Comparative view of conjugations,

213 ff.

Comparison of adjs., 160 ff.; modes of, 161; terminational, 162; irreg., 163; defect., 166; adverbial, 170; of adverbs, 306. Use of compar., 444. Dat. w. verbs of comparison, 385, 4, 3).

Comples, decl., p. 36, foot-note 4. Comples, constr., 410, V., 1; p. 225,

toot-note 3.

Complex sentences, 348; elements, 357, 2; subject, 359; predicate, 361. Complūres, deel., 154, N. 1.

Compos w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; -os in, 581, VII., 1; quant. of inerem., 585, II., 3.

Composition of words, 340 ff.

Comporn Words, 313, N. 2; pronunciation, 8, 3; p. 8, foot-note 1; 18, 2. Compd. nouns, decl., 125 ff. Compd. interrog., 188, 3; nouns, 341; 343; adjs., 342; 343; verbs, 221; 344. Compd. sentences, 349. Compds. of preps. w. acc., 372; w. two accs., 376; w. dat., 386. Quant. in compds., 594. Compd. verse, 601, N. 2.

Computation of money, 647.

Concealing, verbs of, w. two accs., 374. Concession expressed by particip., 549, 2. Concessive conjunctions, 311, 4; 555, IV.; concess. subj. of desire, 484, III. Concess. clauses, 514 ff.; position of, 572, II., N.

Condemning, constr. w. verbs of, 410,

III.

Condicō w. gen., 409, N. 3.

Condition expressed by imperat., 487, 3; by particip., 549, 2.

Conditional conjunes., 311, 3; 555, III. Cond. sentences, 506 ff.; first form, 508; sec. form, 509; third form, 510; combined forms, 511; 512. Condit. clauses w. dum, etc., 513. Condit. sentences in indir. disc., 527. Position of condit. clauses, 572, II., N.

Confido w. abl., 425, 1, 1), N.

Conton, constr., p. 202, foot-note 1.
Consugation, 201 ff.; of sum, 204.
First conj., 205 ff.; 223 ff.; 257 ff.; second, 207 ff.; 225 ff.; 261 ff.; ê, in imperat., 581, IV., 3; third, 209 ff.; 227 ff.; 269 ff.; fourth, 211 ff.; 229 ff.; 284 ff.; is in pres. indic., 581, VIII., 3; verbs in 25 of Conj.
III., 217. Periphrastic, 233 ff. Peculiarities, 235 ff. Comparative view, 213. Irreg. verbs, 289 ff.; defect., 297 ff.; impers., 298 ff. Increm. of conj., 583; 584; quant., 586.

Conjunctions, 300; coord., 554; subord., 555. Conj. omitted, 554, I., 6. Place of conj. in sentence, 569, III.

Conor, constr., 498, II., N. 1.

Conscius w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2; other constrs., 400. Conscius mihi sum w. infin.,

535, I., 3.

Consecutive conjs., 311, 6; 555, VI. Consequer, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2. Consimilis w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3. Consonant nouns, 55 ff. Consonant stems, 57 ff. Consonant verbs, 209.

Consonants, 3, II.; double, 3, N. 2; sounds of, 7; 13; 15, 2; phonetic changes in, 30 ff.; interchanged w. vowels, 28; 29; assimilated, 33; 34; dissimilated, 35; omitted, 36.

Consors w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3, Constituō, constr., 498, I., N.; p. 274, foot-note 1.

Consto w. abl., p. 226, foot-note 1.

Consul, decl., 60.

Consulo, constr., 374, 2; 385, 1. Consultus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Contendo w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1; w. infin., 498, II., N. 1; w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 2.

Contention, dat. w.

Contentus w. abl., 420, 1, 4); 421, III. Continental pronunciation of Latin,

Contingit, constr., p. 276, foot-note 2. Continuing, constr. w. verbs of, 533,

Contra, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. acc., 433; 433, 1.

Contraction of vowels, 23; in conjugation, 235. Quant. of syllables in contract., 576, L

Contrārius w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3. Contro- in compds., 594, 8.

Convenio, constr., 380, N.

Convicting, constr. w. verbs of, 409, II.; 410, II.

Convoco, constr., 380, N.

Coordinate conjs., 309, 1; 554.

Copia, copiae, 132. fin., 533, 3, N. 3. Copia est w. in-

Copulative conjs., 310, 1; 554, I. Copule w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1. Cor, defective, 133, 5; o in, 579, 3.

Coram, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. abl., 434.

Cornū, decl., 116.

Coronides, i in, p. 345, foot-note 3.

Corpus, deel., 61.

Correlative pronouns, 191; adverbs, 305. Correlat. compar. conjunes., 555, II., 1. Position of correlat. clauses, 572, II., N.

Cos, defective, 133, 5. -cōsus, adjs. in, 328.

Cotidie, locat., 120, N.

Countries, names of, gend., 42, II., 2; constr., 380, 3.

Credor, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2).

Crimine, constr., 410, II., 1.

-crum, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 1; nouns in, 327.

Cubitus, 648, IV., N.

Cuicuimodi, 187, 4.

Cajās, cajas, 185, N. 3.

Chiusmodt, chijuscumquemodi, 187, 4,

-**cula**, nouns in, 321; u in, 587, 11., 3. -culo, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 8.

-culum, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 1; nouns in, 321; 327; cu in, 587, II., 3.

-culus, nouns in, 321; adjs. in, 332; u in pen., 587, H., 3.

Cum, prep., p. 149, foot-note 2; appended, 184, 6; 187, 2; com in compds., 344, 5. Cum w. abl., 434; 434, I.; of accompaniment, 419; of manner, 419, III.; after idem, 451, 5; w. pl. verb, 461, 4. Cum w. ger., p. 216, foot-note 1.

Cum, quum, p. 75, foot-note 1; 305,

IV.; 311, 1 and 4; p. 151, footnotes 1 and 4; 311, 7; w. perf. indie., 471, 5; w. plup. indie., 472, 2; introducing a condition, 507, 3; a concession, 515, III.; 515, N. 4; a causal clause, 517; a temp. clause. Cum w. infinit., 524, 1, 2). Cum-tum, 554, I., 5.

-cumque, p. 75, foot-note 3; 305, N. 1.

Cumulo, constr., p. 225, foot-note 3. Cancti w. part. gen., 397, 3, N. 4.

-cundus, verbals in, 333.

Capidas w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2.

Cupiens w. dat. of possessor, 387, N. 3.

Capia, constr., p. 310, foot-note 1. Cara est w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 3. Cărō, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2.

-cus, adjs. in, 330; 333, 5.

Cyclic daetyl, 598, 1, 3); anapaest, 598, 1, 4). Cyclops, quant. of increm., 585, II., 2.

### D

D for t, 32, N. 1. D changed to l, 32; assimilated to n or s, 34, 1; to l, 34, 2; dropped before s, 36, 2. D final dropped, 36, 5, 2). Quant. of final syllables in d, 579, 2; 580, II.

-d, -då, nouns in, 322.

Dactyl, 597, 1.; cyclic, 598, 1, 3). Effect of dactyls, 610, 2,

Daetylie verse, 603, N. 1; 614 ff.; hexameter, 609 ff.

Dāmma, gend., 48, 5.

Danais, quant. of pen., p. 345, foot-

Danger, constr. w. expressions of, 498,

Daps, dapis, defective, 133, 3. Dare litterās, 385, 1, N. Dare operam w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 2. E in dedi, a in datum, 590, 1.

Daring, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., 1. Dates, Eng. and Lat., 644.

Dative, Decl. 1., 49, 4; Decl. III., 58, 2; 66, 2; 67, N. 1; 68, 5; Decl. IV., 117, 1; Deel. V., 121, 1.

Dative, syntax of, 382 ff. Dat. for acc., 380, 4. Dat. in exclamations, 381, N. 3, 3); w. verbs, 384 ff.; w. compds., 386; of possessor, 387; of agent, 388. Ethical dat., 389. Two dats., 390. Dat. w. adjs., 391; 399, I., 3, N. 1; 400, I; w. nouns and adverbs, 392; w. refert and interest, 408, L., 3. Dat. of penalty, 410, III... N. 1. Dat. of ger., 542, II.; gerundive, 544, 2.

Dative sing. in *i*, 581, I., 2. dat., Decl. III., 581, IV., 2.

'Daughter,' apparent ellipsis of, 398, I., N. 2. Names of daughters, 649, 4. Day, Rom. division of, 645.

De in compds. w. dat., 386; w. abl., De w. abl., 434; 434, 434, N. 1. I.; for genit., 397, N. 3. De w. ger., p. 316, foot-note 1.

Dea, decl., 49, 4.

Debeo w. pres. infin., 537, 1.

Decay, phonetic, p. 12, foot-note 1. Decerno, constr., 498, I., N.; p. 274, foot-note 1.

Dēcipiō, constr., p. 217, foot-note 5. Declarative sentence, 350; in indir. disc., 523, I.

Declaring, constr. w. verbs of, 535, I. Declension, 46; first, 48; sec., 51; third, 55; fourth, 116; sec. and fourth, 119; fifth, 120; compds., 125. -O in Decl. III., 581, II., 2.  $-\bar{E}$  in Decl. I. and V., 581, IV., 1. Increm. of decl., 582; 584; quant., 585.

Dē $docear{o}$ , constr., 374, 2.

Defective nouns, 122; 127, II.; 129 ff.; adjs., 159, H. Def. compar., 166 ff. Def. verbs, 297.

Degree, adverbs of, 305, N. 2, 3). Degrees of comparison, 160. Deinde, in series, 554, I., N. 2. Dēlectō, constr., 385, II., N. 1. Deliberative subj., 484, V. Delib. questions, 523, II., 1, N.

 $Delos, \, \mathrm{decl.}, \, 54.$ 

Delphin, quant. of increm., 585, IV., 3. Demanding, constr. w. verbs of, 374. Demonstrative pronouns, 186; use of, 450 ff.; 449, 1. Demon. roots, 314, H. Demon, adverbs, 450, N. 4. Demon. w. infin., 538, 3. Position of demon., 569, 1. Demon. redun-

dant, 636, III., 7. Denarius, 646.

Denique, in series, 554, I., N. 2.

Denominatives, 335.

Dental stems, Decl. III., 58. Dentals, 3, II.; 3, N. 1, I., 2. De-Dependent clauses, 348, N. 2.

pend. questions, 528, 2, N. Deponent verbs, 195, 2; 231; 465, 2. Depriving, constr. w. verbs of, 414, I. Derivation, 321 ff.; of nouns, 321 ff.;

adjs.. 328 ff.; verbs, 335 ff. Derivatives, quant. in, 593.

-dēs, nouns in. 322.

Descent, names of, 322.

Descriptive genit., 396, V.; abl., 419, II., N. Descrip. imperf. in temp. clauses, 518, N. 1.

Desideratives, 284, 2; 338.

Dēsinō, constr., p. 217, foot-note 5. Desire, subj. of, 483 ff.; for imperat., 487, 4.

Desiring, gen. w. adjs. of, 399, I., 1; p. 315, foot-note 2; w. verbs of, 410, V., 2. Subj. after verbs of, 498, I.; infinit., 533, I., 1; 535, II.

Desistō, constr., p. 217, foot-note 5. Despero w. acc., 371, III., N. 1; w. dat. or acc., p. 202, foot-note 1.

Destitute of, constr. w. adjs. signifying, 414, III.

Desum, synaeresis in, 608, III., N. 1. Desuper w. acc., 437, 1.

Deterior, comparison, 166. *Dēterius*, comparison, 306, 3.

Determinative compds., 343, I. Determining, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., 1.

Deterreo, constr., p. 279, foot-note 2. Deus, decl., 51, 6.

-dex, compds. in, 341, 1.

Derter, decl., 150, N. 1); dextrā, constr., 425, 2.

Di, dis, insep. prep., 308; in compds., 344, 6; i in dī, 594, 2

Diacresis, 602, 2; 608, IV. D'āna, ī in, 577, I., 3, (4). Diastole, 608, V.

Dic for dice, 238.

Diciō, defective, 134. Dicolon, p. 352, foot-note 3.

Dicor, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2). Dicto audiens, 390, N. 3.

-dicus, compds. in, 342, 1; compar., 164.

 $Did\bar{o}$ , decl., 68.

Dies, decl., 120; 122, 1; gend., 123; i in compds., 594, 7.

Difference, abl. of, 417, 2; 423. Differing, dat. w. verbs of, 385, 2;

385, 4, 2), Differo w. dat., p. 200, foot-note 2.

Difficilis, compar., 163, 2; w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. supine, 547, 1. Dignor, constr., 421, N. 2.

Dignus, constr., 421, III.; 421, N. 3. Dignus qui w. subj., 503, II., 2. Dignus w. supine, 547, 1.

Diiambus, 597, N. 1.

Dimeter, 603, N. 2. Diminutive nouns, 321; adjs., 332; verbs, 339.

Diphthongs, 4; sounds of, 6; 12; 15, 1; weakening of, 23, N.; quant. of syllab. w. diphth., 576, I.; final diphth. elided, 608, I.; shortened | in hiatus, 608, II., N. 3.

Dipody, 597, N. 2.

DIRECT object, 370 ff. Direct disc., 522, 1; changed to indir., 530; indir. to direct, 531.

Directing, constr. w. verbs of, 499, 2. Direction, how expressed, 354, 3, 1); 385, 4, 1); 386, 3.

Dirimo, di in, 594, 2, N. 1.

Dis, quant. of increm., 585, IV., 2. Dis, di, insep. prep., 308; in compds., 344, 6.

Disertus, di in, 594, 2, N. 1.

Disjunctive conjunctions, 310, 2; 554, II. Disjunct, questions, 353. Dispar, constr., p. 205, foot-notes 1

and 3.

Displeasing, verbs of, w. dat., 385, I.

Dispondee, 597, N. 1. Dissenting, verbs of, w. dat., 385, 2. Dissentio, dissideo, w. dat., p. 200,

foot-note 2. Dissimilation of vowels, 26; conso-

nants, 35,

Dissimilis, compar., 163, 2; constr., p. 205, foot-notes 1, 2, and 3.

Dissyllabic perfects and supines, quant. of pen., 596. Distance, abl. of, 379, 2; 423, N. 2. Distich, 606, N.; elegiae, 615.

Disto w. dat., p. 200, foot-note 2. Distributives, 172, 3; 174; decl., 179. Ditrochee, 597, N. 1.

Diu, 304, I., 1; compar., 306, 4. Dius, i in, 577, I., 3, (2). Diuturnus, superl. wanting, 168, 3.

Diversus, compar., 167, 2; w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.

Dires, compar., 165, N. 2.

-dō, nouns in, 327, 4, N.; deel., 60, 4. Dō w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2). See also *Dare*. Quant. of increm. of  $d\bar{o}$ , 586, I.

Doceo, constr., 374, 2.

Doleō w. acc., 371, HI., N. 1; w. abl., p. 221, foot-note 2; w. infin., p. 310, foot-note 2.

Domus, gend., 118; deel., 119, 1; eonstr., 380, 2, 1); 412, II., 1; 425, 2. Donec, 311, 1; in temp. clauses, 519. Dono, constr., p. 195, foot-note 1; w.

two dats., 390, N. 1, 2).

Double consonants, 3, N. 2. Double eonstr. w. verbs, 384, 2. Double questions, 353.

Dropping of vowels, 27; consonants,

Dry measure, Rom., 648, II. Dt changed to st, ss, or s, 35, 3. Dual number, p. 68, foot-note 1. Dubitō, constr., 505, L.

Due for  $duee,\ 238.$ Dūcō w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2.

Duim for dem, 240, 3.

Dum, p. 145, foot-note 1; 311, 1 and 3; 555, I., 1; w. pres. indic., 467, 4; w. subj. in conditions, 513, I. Dum in temp. clauses, 519; in indir. clauses, 529, II., N. 2.

Dummodo, 311, 3; w. subj. in conditions, 513, I.

 $Duo, \, ext{deel.} \, . \, \, 175 \, ; \, \, o \, \, ext{in}, \, 581, \, ext{II.} \, , \, 1.$ 

Duration of time, 379. -**dus**, adjs. in, 333.

Dy changed to b, v, or d, 32, N. 2.

E,  $\bar{e}$ , sound, 5; 10 ff.  $\bar{E}$  final shortened, 21, 2, 3). Nouns in  $\hat{\epsilon}$ , Decl. I., 50: in  $\epsilon$ , Decl. III., 63; 65, 2; 70. E, gend. of nouns in, Decl. III., 111. -E in abl., 62. - $\bar{E}$  in plur. of Greek neuters, 68, 6. E-nouns, 120. E-verbs, 207.  $\bar{E}$ -stems, 120. 1. -E,  $-\bar{\epsilon}$ , in adverbs, 304, I., 3; 304, II., 2; 304, III., 1. -E,  $-\bar{\epsilon}$ , suffix, 320, II. E changed to i, 344, 4, N. 1. E or ē in ēī, 120, 2; 577, I., 2, (1); 585, III., 1. E or è, final, 580, I.; 580, III., N. 2; 581, IV.; in increm. of decl., 585; 585, III.; conj., 586; 586. II. E elided before consonant, 60s, 1., N. 2.

 $ilde{E}$  or ex, see ex. Ea, 204, H., 3; 305, V.

-ēa in prop. names, ē in, 577, I., 5, N. *Eabus* for  $\epsilon is = iis$ , p. 73, feet-note 2.

Eadem, 304, II., 3; 305, V. Easy, dat. w. adjs. signifying, 391, I.  $ar{E}costor$ , interj., p. 152, foot-note 4. Ecce, 312, 1; with demonstratives,

186, 3; with dat. in exclamations, 351, N. 3, 3).

Ecquis, 188, 3. Ecquid, p. 150, footnote 1.

Eethlipsis, 604, I., N. 4. Edim for edam, 240, 3.

-ēdō, nouns in, 325; ē in, 587, I., 2. Edoceo, constr., 374, 2.

Ee in synaeresis, 608, III., N. 1. Effect, acc. of, 371, 1., 2, 2).

Efficio, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2; 501, H., 1.

Effigies, decl., 122, 2. Effort, subj. w. verbs of, 498, II.

Egenus, compared, 164, 1; w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 219, footnote 4.

Egeō, constr., 410, V., 1. Ego, decl., 184. Ťin mihř, 581, I., 2. O in ego, 581, II., 1.

Ehem, interj., 312, 1. Ehen, interj., 312, 3; w. acc., 381, N.

2; ê in, 577, 1., 2, (3). Eho, ehodum, 312, 5; o in, 581, II., 1. Ei, interj., 312, 3; w. dat., 381, N. 3,

Ei, pronunciation as diphthong, 6, 1; 12, 1; è or e in ěi, 120, 2; 577, I., 2, (1); 585, III., 1. L'i in synaeresis, 608, III., N. 1.

-ēis, ē in, 587, I., 3.

-ēius, ē in, 577, İ., 2, (2).  $\bar{E}/a$ , 312, 2 and 6; a in, 581, III., 3.

Ejusmodi, 186, 4, N. -ēla, ē in, 587, l., 4.

Elegiae Distich, 615.

Elements of sentences, 356 ff. -ēlis, ē in, 587, L. 4.

Elision, 608, I.

-ella, nouns in, 321, 4. Ellam for en illam, 186, 3. Ellipsis, 636. I.

-ellum, nouns in, 321, 4. Ellum for en illum, 186, 3.

-ellus in nouns, 521, 4; adjs., 332, N. 1.

*Ēluvies*, defective, 122, 3.

-em in acc., 62.

Emotion, constr. w. verbs of, 371, III.;

410, V., 2; 535, III.

Emphasis in arrang. of words, 561. Emphatic forms of pronouns, 184, 3; 185, N. 2. Emphatic adverbial phrases, 305, N. 4.

 $\bar{E}_n$ , 312, 1; w. demonstratives, 186, 3; in exclamations, 381, N. 3, 3).

-en, suffix, 320, Il.; nouns in, 327. Quant. of increm. of nouns in -en, 585, III., 2.

-ēma, ē in, 587, 1., 5.

Enallage, 636, IV.

Enclities, accent, 18, 2, 1); quant., 579, I., 1.

End, dat. of, 384, 1, 3). End of sentence emphatic, 561, II.

Endeavoring, constr. w. verbs of, 498, II., N. 1.

Ending, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., 1. Endings of genitive, 47; of cases, Decl. I., 48; 49; Decl. II., 51, 2, 3); 52; Decl. III., 62, I., 2; 67; Decl. IV., 116; 117; Decl. V., 120; 121; in compar., 162; conj., 213-

216.Endo, o in, 581, II., 1.

English pronunciation of Latin, 9 ff.

-**ēnī**, ē in, 587, I., 8.

Enim, 310, 5; 554, V., 3; position, 569, III.

Enitor, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2. Enneasyllabic verse, 619, 1.

-ēnsis, adjs. in, 330; 331.

-ent, suffix, 320, 11.

-entia, -entio, suffixes, p. 155, footnote 9.

-ealior, -entissimus, in compar., 164.

-exio, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 9. Enumerative asyndeton, p. 370, footnote 1.

-**ēnus**, ē in, 587, I., 5.

Eō, īrē, w. sup. in -um, 546, 2; īrī w. do., 546, 3. Ī in ībam, ībō, etc., 58 i, Ill., 4. / in it am, 590, 1.

Eō, adverb, 301, 11., 3, N.; 305, II.; 554, IV., 1; w. gen., p. 209, footnote 3.

Eōdem, 205, 11. Epenthesis, 635, 4. Ephesus, decl., 51, 8. Epicene nouns, 43, 3. Epiphora, 636, III., 4. Epitomē, decl., 50. Epizeuxis, 636, III., 5.

-eps, decl. of nouns in, 88. Epulum, epulae, 143, 3. Equester, decl., 153, N. 1.

Equivalents, metrical, 598. -er, nouns in, gend., 53; 99; 103; decl., 51, 4; 60, 3; adjs. in, deel., 62, IV., N. 1; 150, N.; 153, N. 2; compar., 163, 1. Quant. of increm.

of nouns in -er, 585, 111., 4. -Ere for erunt, 236.

 $\bar{E}rg\bar{a}$ , p. 149, foot-note 2; w. acc., 433; 433, I.; after adjs., 391, II., 1; for gen., 396, III., N. 1.

Ergō, 310, 4; p. 151, foot-note 1; w. gen., 398, 5.

-erunt for -erunt, 236, N.; 586, H., 4. Es attached to preceding word, 27, N.; e in, 579, 3; in compds., 581, VI.,

-es, -Es, sutlixes, 320, II. Nouns in -& 327; decl., 65, 1; 80; 120; quant. of increm., 585, 11I., 4; gend., 99; 104; 105; 109; 120. Decl. of nouns in -&, 81; gend., 99; 104. Es or -es final, 580, III.; 581, VI. A in voc. of Greek nouns in -es, p. 341, foot-note 1.

-ēsimus, ē in, 587, III., 3.

Esse omitted, 534, N.

Essential elements of sentences, 357, 1, -ēssō, -ēssim, in fut. perf. and peri. subj., 240, 4.

-**essō**, verbs in, 336, N. 2.

Est drops initial, 27, N. Est ut, 498,

II., N. 2. Est, impers., constr., p. 276, foot-note 2. Est at end of line, 613, N. 3,

ester, -estris, adjs. in, 330, 1. Et, 310, 1; 554, I.; meaning as, 451, 5; than, 459, 2. Et-et, et-que, que-et, neque (nec)-et, et-neque (nec), 554, I., 5. Et in poetry, (nec), 554, L., 5. position, 569, III., N. Preps. repeated w, et-et, 636, III., 6.

-ēt in Plautus for -et, 580, III., N. 2. -ēta, č in, 587, I., 7.

-etas, e in. 587, II., 4.

Etenim, 310, 5; 554, V., 2.

Ethical dat., 389. Etiam, 310, 1; 554, I., 2, 4, and 5. Etiamsi, etsi, 311, 4; in concessions, 515, II. Etsi = 'yet,' etc., 515, N. 2. -ētum, nonns in, 323; ē in, 587, I., 7.

-ētus, ē in. 587, I., 7.

Etymology, 37-344. Figures of etvmol., 634, N.; 635.

Eu, sound, 6, 1; 12. Euge, interj., 312, 2 and 6. Euhoe, interj., 312, 2. Euphemism, 637, XI., 4.

Euphony in arrang, of words, 561. -eus, adjs. in, 329; -eus, 331. - Eus

in prop. nouns, è in, 577, 5, N. Evenit, constr., p. 276, foot-note 2.

 $Ero\epsilon$ , interj., 312, 2.

Ex,  $\bar{\epsilon}$ , in compds., 344, 5; w. dat., 386, 2; w. abl., 434, N. 1. Ex w. abl. for part. gen., 397, N. 3. Ec, ē. w. abl., 434; 434, l. E. er, 434, N. 2. Ex, ē, w. ger., p. 316, footnote 1.

-ex, -ex, decl. of nouns in, 92; 93. Compds. in -ec, 341, 1. Exadversum, exadversus, w. acc., 433.

Exanimus, exanimis, 159, 111. Exchanging, constr. w. verbs of, 422,

Exclamatory sentences, 355; acc. in, 351; voc., nom., dat. in, 381, N. 3; infin. in, 539, III.

Existemô, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2). Exonero, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Exos, -os in, 581, VII., 1.

Expedio, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1.

Expers w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Explicative asyndeton, p. 370, footnote 1.

*Exposco* w. two accs., 374, 2. Exsequias, acc. of limit, 350, 2, 3). Exsoleo, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Ecsors w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Extemplo, 304, Il., 1, N.

Extent of space, acc. of, 379. External object, 371, I., 1.

Ecterus, compar., 163, 3. Extră, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. acc.,

433; 433, 1.

Extremus, meaning, 440, N. 2. Ecuo, constr., 377; p. 198, foot-note 1; p. 219, toot-note 1.

Fuc for face, 238. Fac ne w. subi. in prohibitions, 489, 2). A in fac, 579, 3.

Facies, decl., 122, 2.

Facilis, compar., 163, 2; w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. supine, 547, 1. Facio, accent of compds., 18, 2, 2). Facio omitted, 368, 3, N. 1. Facio

w. dat., 385, 3; w. pred. gen., 403;
w. abl., 415, III., N. 1. Facio at,
498, II., N. 2. Facio w. subj., p. 274. foot-note 2; 499, 2; 501, II., t.

E before f in compds., 594, 6. -factō, verbs in, 344, 3.

Facultăs, facultătes, 132. Falsus, compar., 167, 2. Fāma fert w. infin., 535, I., 3.

Fames, abl. fame, 137, 2.

Familia, genitive, 49, 1. Familiā. constr., 415, H., N.

Får, decl., 63, 2, N.; 133, N. Fās, defect., 134; w. supine, 547, 1. Fastidiosus w. gen., p. 210, foot-

note 3. Faux, deel., p. 38, foot-note 4.

Favorite vowel, 24.

Fax, quant. of increm., 585, I., 4, (3). Faxo, faxim, for fecero, fecerim, 240, 4. Fearing, constr. w. verbs of, 498, III. Febris, deel., 62, III.

Feeling, constr. w. verbs of, 371, III.; 410. V., 2; 535, III.

Feet in versification, 597. Fel, defective, 133, 4  $\,$  N.

Felix, decl., 156.

Feminine, 42, II. Fem. caesura, 611, N. Fer for fere. 238; e in, 579, 3.

-fer, compds. in, 342, 1; decl., 51, 4, 2); adjs. in, 150, 3), N.

Fere, ferme, e in, 581, IV., 4.

Fero and compds., increm. of, 586, 1. Feror, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2). Fertilis w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Ferus, not compared, 169, 4.

Festivals, plur, in names of, explained, 131, N.; plur. in -alia, decl., 136, 3. -fex, compils, in, 341, 1.

-ficō, verbs in, 344, 3.

-ficus, adjs. in, 342, 1; compar., 164. Fidelis w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Fidi, i in, 500, 1.

Fido w. abl., 425, 1, 1), N.

Fifth decl., 120 ff.; ē final in, 581, IV., 1. Figures of prosody, 608. Fig. of speech, 634 ff.; of etymology, 634, Fig. of N.; 635; of syntax, 634, N.; 636; of rhetoric, 634, N.; 637.

Filia, deel., 49, 4.

Filix w. short increm., p. 243, footnote 2.

Filling, constr w. verbs of, p. 225. toot-note 3.

Final conjunctions, 311, 5; 555, V. Final vowels and syllables, quant. of, 580; 581. Fin. syl. of verse, 605. Fin. syl. elided, 608, I. Fin. long vowel or diphthong shortened in hiatus, 608, H., N. 3.
Finis, decl., 62, IV.; singular and

plur., 132.

Finite verb, 199, N.

Finitimus, constr., p. 205, foot-notes

1 and 3.

Fiō w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 1); w. abl., 415, III., N. 1. Fit, constr., p. 276, foot-note 2. I or i in fit, 577, I., 3, (1). E before f in compds., 594, 6.

First deel., 48 ff.; ē final in, 581, IV., 1. First conjugat., 205 ff.; 223 ff.; 257 ff. Flagito w. two aces., 374, 2.

Flocci, constr., p. 213, foot-note 3.

 $Fl\bar{o}s$ , decl., 61. Following, constr. w. verbs of, 501,

I., 1. Foot, caesura of, p. 357, foot-note 1.

Roman foot, 648, IV. 'For,' how translated, 384, 3.

Forās, 304, I., 1.

Fore ut, 537, 3. Foreign words indeel., 128, 2.

Forgetting, constr. w. verbs of, 407. Foris, i in, 581, VIII., 1.

Formation of stems of verbs, 249 ff.; of words, 313 ff.; of nouns, 321 ff. Fornix w. short increm., p. 343, footnote 2.

Fors, defective, 134.
Forsitan, 304, IV., N. 2; w. subj., p. 267, foot-note 1.

Fortuitus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 2.

Fortūna, fortūnae, 132. Fourth deel., 116 ff. Fourth conjugat., 211 ff.; 229 ff.; 284 ff.

Fractions, 174, 1.

Fraudō, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Fraus, deel., p. 38, foot-note 4.

Free from, constr. w. adjs. signify-ing, 414, III.

Frenum, pl. frênî, frêna, 143, 2. Frequentatives, 336.

Fretus w. abl., 425, 1, 1), N.

Fricatives, 3, II., 4. Friendly, constr. w. adjs. signifying, 391, I. and II.

Fructus, decl., 116.

Frūgī, indeclin., 159, I.; compar., 165, N. 2.

Fruor, constr., 421, I.; 421, N. 4; gerundive of, 544, 2, N. 5.

Frux, defective, 133, 3; quant. of increm., 535, V., 2.

Fuam for sim, 204, 2.

Fulness, adjs. of, w. gen., 399, I., 3. Fungor, constr., 421, I.; 421, N. 4; gerundive of, 544, 2, N. 5.

Für, quant. of increm., 585, V., Furnishing, constr. w. verbs of, p.

225, foot-note 3. FUTURE, 197; 222. Fut. indic., 470; for imperat., 487, 4. Fut. in condit., 511, 1, N. 1; in temp. clauses, p. 293, foot-note 2. Fut. in subj., 479; 481; 496. Fut. imperat., 487,

2. Fut. infin., 537; periphrast., 537, 3. Fut. particip., 550. Future Perfect, 197, II.; 222, II.; 473; in subj., 496; in indir. disc.,

525, 2; in infinit., 537, 3, N. 2. -\bar{s} in fut. pert., 581, VIII., 5.

Futurum esse ut, 537, 3. Futurum sit, esset, ut, p. 272, foot-note 2.

G formed from C, 2, 2; sound, 7; 13; changed to  $\epsilon$ , 33, 1; assimilated to m, 34, 3; dropped, 36, 3.

Gaudeo, constr., p. 221, foot-note 2; p. 310, foot-note 2.

Gācīsus, i in, 586, 111., 2. Gemō w. acc., 371, III., N.

Gems, gend. of names of, 53, 1.

Gender, 41 fl.; Deel. I., 48; Deel. II., 53; Deel. III., 99-115; Deel. IV., 118. Decl. V., 123; general table, 124.

Gener, deel., 51, 4, 3).
General relatives, p. 75, foot-note 3. Gen. rel. adverbs, 305, N. 1. Gen. subject, 460, 1, N. 2. Gen. truths, 467, II.; in conditions, 508, 5; 511, Gen. negat., 553, 1 and 2.

Genere, constr., 415, II., N. Genitive, endings of, 47; Decl. I., ās for ae, am for arum, 49; Decl. II.,

î for iî, 51, 5; ûm for ôrum, 52, 3; ôn for ôrum, 54, N. 1; Deel. III., um or ium, p. 36, foot-notes 3 and 4; p. 38, foot-note 2; p. 40, footnote 3; yos, ys, 68, 2; on, 68, 4; Decl. IV., uis, uos, for us, 117; Decl. V., i, et, es, tor et, 121. Gen. in adjs., 158, 2. - l's in gen., 581,

IX., 2.

CENITIVE, syntax, 393 ff.; how rendered, 393, N. Gen. w. possessives, 363, 4, 1); w. nouns, 395, varieties, 396; in special constructions, 398; 406 ff.; w. adjs., 391, 11., 4; 399; w. verbs, 401 fl. Pred. gen., 401 ff.; of price, 404; 405. Acc. and gen., 409. Gen. w. adverbs, 397, 4. Gen. of ger., 542, I. Position of gen. w. adj., 565, 2; between prep. and ease, 569, 11., 3.

Genitus w. abl., 415, 11. tientes, Roman, how designated, 331,

N. 2.

Gentile nouns, 331, N. 1.

Genus, circumlocutions w., 636, 111., 10.

-ger, compds. in, 342, 1; decl., 51, 4, 2); adjs., 150, N.
Gerund, 200, II.; endings, 248. Ger-

und in sequence of tenses, 495, IV. Syntax of gerund, 541; 542. Ger. w. pass, meaning, 541, N. Cases

w. pass. meaning, 341, N. Cress of ger., 542, Ger. w. gen., nei, etc., 542, I., N. 1; denoting purpose, 542, I., N. 2; 542, III., N. 2. Gerend. eonstr., 543, N.; 544; denoting purpose, 544, 2, N. 2; w. official names, 544, 2, N. 3; after comparate 544, 2, N. 3; after

comparat., 544, 2, N. 4.

Gigno w. genui, genitum, 592, 2. Giving, verbs of, w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2).

Glacies, decl., 122, 3.

Glis, deel., p. 3s, foot-note 4; quant. of increm., 585, IV., 2. Glyconic verse, 604, N. 1; 628, III. and VII.; 631, IV.-VI.

Gn lengthens preceding vowel, 16, N. 2. Guarus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2,

Gnomie perfect, 471, 5,

·gō, deel. of nouns in, 60, 4. Going, verbs of, w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 1).

Golden age, 640, II., 1. Gracilis, compar., 163, 2.

Gratia, gratiae, 132. Grātis, i in, 581, VIII., 1.

Gratuitus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 2. Grātus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Graviter fero, constr., p. 310, foot-

note 2.

Greater Ionic, 597, N. 1; Archilo-ehian, 628, X.; 616, N.; 619, N.;

Asclepiadean, 628, V.; Sapphie, 628, VII.; Aleaie, 628, IX.

GREEK Nouns, Deel. I., 50; Deel. II., 54; Deel. III., 68. Long vowels in Greek nouns, 577, 5. *I*, *i*, in dat. and voe., 581, I., 2. - *A* in voe., 581, III., 2. -E in plur., 581, IV., 1. -As in acc., 581, V., 2. -Es in Greek words, 581, Vl., 3; -os, 581, VII., 2; -ūs, 581, IX., 3. A in increm, of nouns in a and as, 585, I., 3. 0 in increm., 585, II., 5; è in words in -en, 585, III., 2; in -e8 and-er, 585, III., 4. Quant. of inerem. of words in -ar, 585, 1., 4, (3). I in increm., 585, 1V., 3.

Grimm's law, 638, N. 2.

Grus, deel., 66, 2.

Gryps, deel., p. 38, foot-note 3. Guilt, adjs. of, w. genit., 399, 1., 3. Gutturals, 3, 11.; before s, 30. Guttural stems, 59.

H changed to c, 33, 1, N. 1; following other consonants, does not lengthen preceding syllable, 576, 1, N. 1. Syllable before h short, 577.

Haheo, meaning, p. 202, foot-note 3; w. two accs., 373, 1, N. 1; w. perf. part., 388, 1, N.; w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2).

Hāc, 304, II., 3; 305, V.

Hadria, gend., 48, 5. Haec for hae, p. 72, foot-note 7.

Halitus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 2. Happening, constr. w. verbs of, 501,

I., 1. Hand, use, 552.

Heja, interj., 312, 6; a in, 581, III., 3. Hem, interj., 312, 1; w. dat., 381, N. 3, 3. Hendiadys, 636, 111., 2.

Hepar, quant. of increm., 585, 1., 4, 1. Hephthemimeral caesura, p. 356, foot-

note 4. Heplithemimeris, 597, N. 2.

Heres, quant. of increm., 585, HI., 3

Heroic verse, 604, N. 2. *Heròs*, deel., 63.

Heteroclites, 127; 135 fl.; adjs., 159,

Heterogeneous nouns, 127; 141 ff. Hen, interj., 312, 3; w. acc., 381, N. 2.

Heu in hiatus, 608, H., 1. Heus, interj., 312, 5.

Hexameter, 603, notes 2 and 6; 609 ff. Hiatus, 608, 11.

Hiber, deel., 51, 4, 3); quant. of increm., 585, 111., 3.

Hic, 186; 191; use, 450; i in, 579, 3.  $\bar{O}$ in hốc, 579, 3. Hốc redundant, 636, III., 7.

Hic, 304, 111., 2; 305, I.; w. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3.

Helarus, hilaris, 159, III.

Hine, 305, 111.

Hindering, constr. w. verbs of, 505, Il. Historical tenses, 198; hist, present, 467, III.; in temp. clauses, 518, N. 1; hist. perfect, 198, 1; 197, N. 1; 471, 11. Hist, tenses in sequence, 491 ft. Hist. infin., 536, 1.

Hoc, 304, 11., 3, N. Hodie, 120, N.; 304, H., 1; e in, p. 341, foot-note 2; e in, 594, 10.

Honestus w. supine, 547, 1.

Horace, logaoedic verses in, 628; versification, 630 ff.; lyric metres, 631; index, 632.

Horreo w. acc., 371, III., N.

Horsum, 305, II.

Hortative subj., 484, II.

Hortor, constr., p. 274, foot-note 1. Hortus, horti, 132.

Hospitus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 2. Hostile, constr. w. adjs. signifying,

391, 11., 1.

Hostis, deel., 62. Hours, Roman, 645; 645, 2.

II S, signification, 647, 3.

Hue, 304, II., 3, N.; 305, II.; w. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3.

Hajusmodi, 186, 4, N.

Humilis, compar., 163, 2.

Humus, gend., 53, 1; humi, locat., 426, 2.

'Husband,' apparent ellipsis of, 398, 1, N. 2.

Hydrops, quant. of increm., 585, 11., 2.

Hypallage, 636, IV., 2. Hyperbaton, 636, V

Hyperbole, 637, VI.

Hypermetrical, 603, N. 3.

Hypothetical, see Conditional. Hysteron proteron, 636, V., 2.

I for J, p. 2, foot-note 1. I, 7, sound, 5; 10 ff. I final shortened, 21, 2, 3). I interchanged with j, 28; dropped, 36, 4. I for ii and ie, 51, 5. I-noans, 55; i-verbs, 211. Stems in i, 62 ff.; origin of, p. 35, foot-note 3. Nouns in  $\bar{i}$ , 71; gend., 111.  $-\bar{I}$  in abl., 62; for  $\bar{i}i$ , 121, 1; in adverbs, 304, II., 2; 304, III., 1.  $\bar{I}$ , i, or  $\bar{i}$  final, 580, I.; 581, I.; in increments of decl., 585; 585, IV.; coni., 586; 586, III. I as consonant, 608, III., N. 2.
-iā, sutlix, 320, II. Nouns in -ia,

325; -ia and ies, 138.

-īa in prop. names, i m, 577, 5, N.

-iacus, adjs. in, 331; a in, 587, II., 2. iadēs, a in, 587, II., 1.

Iambie verse, 603, N. 1; 621 ff.; stan-za, 631, XVI.

Iambus, 597, II.; irrational, 598, 1, 2). -iānus, adjs. in, 331.

-**ibam** for -iebam, 240, 1.

Iber, deel., 51, 4, 3); quant. of increm., 585, 111., 3.

1bt, 304, 111., 2; 305, 1. and IV.; i in,

581, I., 2; quant. of ult. in compds., 594. 9.

-ibilis, quant. of antepen., 587, IV., 1. -**ībō**, -**ībor**, for -iam, -iar, 240, 2. Ibus, for eis=iis, p. 73, foot-note 2.

-icius, adjs. in, 329.

letus, 599; place in hexam., 612. -icus, adjs. m, 330; 331; eompar., 169, 3. I in icus, 587, II., 2.

-icus, adjs. m, 335, 5.

Id agó w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 2.

*Id* redundant, 636, III., 7.

Ideireo, 554, IV., 2. Idem, deel., 186, VI.; w. dat., 391, N. 1. Use of idem, 451.

Ideō, 554, IV., 2.

-ides or -ides, in patronymics, 587, II., 1.

Ides, 642, I., 3.

-**i** d ō, i in, 587, I., 2.

Idoneus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Idoneus qui w. subj., 503, 11., 2. Idûs, gend., 118.

-idus, i in, 587, II., 2.

-iē, suflix, 320, H.

-iēnsis, adjs. in, 331. -ier for i in infinit., 240, 6.

-iēs, nouns in, 325, N. 1; 327; -iēs and -ia, 138.

-īgintī, quant. of antepen., 587, III.,

Igitur, 310, 4; 554, IV., 3; position, 569, III.

Ignārus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2.

Ignis, deel., 62. Ignotus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.

-igō, nouns in, 324, N.; 327, 4, N.; ī in, 587, I., 2.

-īle, nouns in, 323; ī in, 587, I., 4. Ilico, 304, II., 1, N.; o in, 581, II., 1. Ition, decl., 54.

-ilis, compar. of adjs. in, 163, 2; 168, I in -ilis, 587, II., 5.

- Tlis, adjs. in, 330; compar., 169, 3. I in ilis, 587, II., N. 1.

-illa, nouns in, 321, 4.

Illac, 305, V.

Illutive conis., 310, 4; 554, IV.

Ille, 186; 191; use, 450; position, 569, I., 1. Ittud redundant, 636, 111., 7.

Ittic, deel., 186, 2.

Ittic, 304, 111., 2; 305, I.

Illine, 305, 111.

-**illō**, verbs in, 339. Illo, illoc, illuc, 304, II., 3, N.; illuc, 305, 11.

Illiado, constr., p. 202, foot-note 1. -illus, -ilium, nouns in, 321, 4;

adjs., 332, N. 1.

-im in acc., 62; for -am or -em in pres. subj., 240, 3. Adverbs in -im, p. 144, foot-note 3.

Imbecillis, compar., 163, 2. Imber, decl., 62, N. 2; 65, 1, 2).

Imbuo, constr., p. 225, foot-note 3. Immemor w. gen., p. 210, toot-note

3; quant. of increm., 585, II., 3. -imonia, nouns in, 325; o in, 587,

111., 4. -imōnium, nouns in, 324; ō in, 587,

III., 4. Impedimentum, impedimenta, 132.

Impello, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2.

IMPERATIVE, 196, III. Syntax, 487 ff. Imperat. in prohibitions, 488 fl.; in indir, disc., 523, III. Imperat. sentences. 354. Imperat. subj., 484, IV. £ in imperat., Conj. II., 581,

IV., 3.

IMPERFECT TENSE, 197, I.; 222, I. Imperf. indic., 468 ff.; subj., 480; in subj. of desire, 483, 2; in potent. subj., 485, N. 1; in seq. of tenses, 840], 495, M. 1, in Seq. of Class, 493; 495, III.; for future time, 496, I.; in condit., 507, III.; 510; 513, N. 1; in concess., 515, II., 3; in temp. clauses, 518, N. 1; 518, 1; 519, 2, N. 1; 520, II.; 521, II.

Imperitus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2.

Impero, constr., p. 274, foot-note 1; p. 310, foot-note 1.

Impersonal verbs, 298 ff.; impers. pass., 195, II., 1; 534, 1. Clauses of result as subjects of impers, verbs, 501, I., 1.

Impertio, constr., p. 198, foot-note 1. Impetro, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2. Impleo, constr., 410, V., 1; p. 225, foot-note 3.

Imploring, constr. w. verbs of, 374, 2,

N. 3.

Impos, os in, 581, VII., 1; quant. of increm., 585, Il., 3.

Impotens w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Imprudens w. gen., p. 210, toot-note 3; w. force of adverb, 443, N. 1.

Impulse, subj. w. verbs of, 495, II. Imputing, two datives w. verbs of, 390, N. 1, 2).

Imus, meaning, 440, N. 2.

-**in**, suflix, 320, H.

In, 308; in compds., 544, 5 and 6; w. dat., 386. In w. acc. or abl., 435; 435, N. 1; 425, l.; w. acc. atter adjs., 391, Il., 1; for genit., 396; Ill., N. 1. In w. abl, for genit., 597, 3, N. 3. In w. gen., p. 315, toot-note 5; p. 316, toot-note 1. m in, 579, 3.

-īna, nouns in, 324.

Incassum, 304, I., 2.

Incedo, constr., p. 202, foot-note 1.

Inceptives, 280; 337.

Incertus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Inchoatives, 337.

Inclination, constr. w. adjs. of, 391, 11., 1, (2).

Inclutus, compar., 167, 2.

Incredibilis w. supine, 547, 1.

Increments, quant. in, 582 ff.; decl., 555; conj., 586.

Inde, 304, III., N.; 305, III.; 310, 4. Indeclinable nouns, 127, I.; 128; gend., 42, N. Indecl. adjs., 159, 1.

Indefinite pronouns, 189; 455 ff. def. relat. adverbs, 305, N. 1. def. subject, 460, 1, N. 2; 518, 2.

Independent clauses, 348, N. 2. Index of verbs, p. 383; lyric metres

ot Horace, 632. Indicative, 196, I.; use, 474 ff. Indie, for subj. in condit., 511.

Indigeo, constr., 410, V., 1.

Indignas, constr., 421, 111., 421, Indignus qui w. subj., 503, 11., Indianus w. supme, 547, 1. Indigus, constr., p. 219, foot-note 4.

Indirect Discourse, 522; moods in prin, clauses, 523; in sub, clauses, 524; tenses, 525; persons and pro-nouns, 526; condit. sentences, 527. Direct changed to indir., 530; indir. to direct, 531. Indirect clauses, 528 ff.; questions, 529; subj. in, 529, I.: indie., 529, 7.

Indirect Object, 382 ff.; w. direct object, 384, H.

Indo-European languages, 638. Indu, u in, p. 340, foot-note 1.

Induco, constr., 377.

Indulging, dat. w. verbs of, 385, 11.

Induō, constr., 377; p. 198, foot-note 1. -**īnē**, nouns in, 322, N.; i in, 587, I., 3. Inferne, e final in, 581, IV., 4. Inferus, compar., 163, 3

Infidelis w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Infimus, meaning, 440, N. 2.

Infinitive, 200, I.; origin, p. 156, foot-note I; gend., 42, N.; endings, 248. Infin. in sequence of tenses, 495, 4. Infin. in relat. clauses, 524, 1, 1); after conjs., 524, 1, 2). Construction of infin., 532 ff. Infin. w. verbs, 533. Infin. of purpose, 533, II. Infin. w. adjs., 533, 11., 3; w. verb. nouns, etc., 533, 3, N. 3; w. preps., 533, 3, N. 4; w. verbs w. acc., 534; 535. Subject of infin., 536. Histor, infin., 536, 1. Pred. after infin., 536, 2. Tenses of infin., 537. Infin. as subject, 538. Infin. in special constr., 539; as pred., 539, I.; as appos., 539, II.; in exclamations, 539, III.

in abl. abs., 539, IV. Infitias, constr., 380, 2, 3). Influence, dat. of, 384, 1, 1).

Infrā, p. 149, foet-note 2; w. acc., 433; 433, I.

Ingrātīs, īs in, 581, VIII., 1. Ingrātus w. dat., p. 205, toot-note 1. Inheritance, divisions of, 646, 3, 4).

-**ini**, quant. of pen., 587, I., 8. Inimīcus, injūcundus, w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.

Injuring, dat. w. verbs of, 385, I. Innitor w. abl., 425, 1, 1), N. Inops w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Inquam, position, 569, V.

Inquies, quant. of increm., 585, III., 3. Insciens w. force of advero, 443, N. 1. Inscius w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Inseparable preps., 308; in compds., 341, 6; quant., 594, 2.

Inspergo, constr., p. 198, foot-note 1. *Īnstar*, defective, 134; gen. w., 398, 4. INSTRUMENTAL CASE, 367, 3; 411, Il.

Instr. abl., 418 ff. Abl. of instrument, 420.

Instruo, constr., p. 225, foot-note 3. Insuber, decl., 65, 1, 2)

Insuetus w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3; p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2. *Insuper* w. acc. or abl., 437, 3.

Integer w. gen., 399, III., 1.

Intensives, 336.

Inter in compds., 344, 5; w. dat., 386. Inter w. acc., 433; 433, I.; for gen., 397, 3, N. 3; w. reciprocal force, 448, N. Inter w. ger., p. 315, footnote 5.

Interchange of vowels and consonants, 28: 29.

Interclūdō, constr., p. 198, foot-note 1. Intereus w. short increm., p. 343, footnote 3.

Interdia, interdius, interdum, 304, I.,

Intereā, 304, IV., N. 2.

Interest, dat. of, 384, 1, 2). Rom. computation of interest, 646, 3, 3). Interest, constr., 406, III.; 408.

Interior, compar., 166. Interjections, 312; 556; 557; w. voc., 369, 1; w. acc., 381, N. 2; w. dat., 381, N. 3, 3); 389, N. 2.

Internal Óbject, 371, I., 2. Interne, e final in, 581, IV., 4.

Interegrative pronouns, 188; 454. Inter. conjs., 311, 8; 555, VIII. Inter. sentences, 351. Inter. words, 351, 1. Double questions, 353. Inter. sentences w. potent. subj., 485, II.; in indir. disc., 523, II. Indirect questions, 528, 2; 529, I.

Interrojo w. two aces., 374, 2.

Interval, abl. of, 430.

Intimus, meaning, 440, N. 2. Intrā w. ace., 433; 433, I.

Intransitive verbs, 193, II.; 195, II., 1; 372, III., N. 3; impers. passive, 465, 1.

Intrō- in compds., 594, S. Intus w. abl., 437, 2.

-īnus, adjs. in, 330, 331; compar., 169, -Inus or -inus in adjs., 587, II., 5, w. N. 2.

Invādō, constr., p. 202, foot-note 1.

Invicem, 304, I., 2. Invitus, compar., 167, 2; special use of dat., 387, N. 3. Invitus w. force of adverb, 443, N. 1.

I $\bar{o}$ , interj., 312, 2.

-io, verbs of Conj. III. in, 217 ff.; quant. of stem-syllable, 588. -Io, -iô, suffixes, 320, II.; nouns in, 321; 326.

 -īōn in prop. names, ī in, 577, 5, N. Ionic feet, 597, N. 1; verse, 626; stanza, 631, XIII.

-ior in comparatives, 162. -Ior, suffix, 320, II.

iōs, suffix, 320, II.

*Ipse*, decl., 186, V.; use, 452; w. abl. abs., 434, 4, N. 3. Gen. of *ipse* w. possessive, 398, 3.

Ipsus for ipse, p. 73, foot-note 5. -**ir**, decl. or nouns in, 51, 4.

Iron age, 640, 111., 2. Ironical condition, 507, 3, N. 1.

Irony, 637, V.

IRRATIONAL time, 596, 1, N. 2. Irrat. trochee, 598, 1, 1). Irrat, jambus, 598, 1, 2).

IRREGULAR nouns, 127 ff.; adjs., 159. Irreg. comparison, 163 ff. Irreg.

verbs, 289 ff.

Is, decl., 186; correlat., 191; use, 450,
4, N. 2; 451. Is—qui, 451, 4. E in &i, 577, I., 2, (1). Tin is, 579, 3.

-is, decl. of adjs. in, 62, IV., N. 1; of nouns in, 65, 1; 82. Gend. of nouns in, 105; 107. -Is in adverbs, 304, I., 3, 1). -Is in acc. pl., 62; 64; 67; in adverbs, 304, II., 1. -*Is* or -*is* final, 580, III., w. N. 2; 581, VIII.

Islands, gend. of names of, 42, II., 2; constr., 380, 2, 2); 412, Il., 1; 426, 1. -issimā, -issimo, suflixes, p. 156,

toot-note 9. -issimus, a, um, in superlat., 162;

p. 157, foot-note 9.

-isso, verbs in, 336, N. 2.

Istāc, 305, V. Iste, decl., 186, II.; correlat., 191; use,

Istic, decl., 186, 2. Istic, 304, III., 2; 305, I.

Istine, 305, III.

Isto, istoc, 304, II., 3. Istuc, 304, II., 3; 305, II.

-it in Plantus for -it, 580, III., N. 2. Ita, 305, V.: ita-si, 507, 3, N. 2. Meaning of ita, 551, N. 2. Ut—ita, w. superlat., 555, H., 1. A in ita, 581, IH., 3. Ita redundant, 636, III., 7.

Itaque, 310, 4.

-itās, nouns in, 324; 325; i in, 587, II., 4.

-iter, i in, 587, II., 4.

-itia, nouns in, 325.

-ities, nouns in, 325, N. 1. -ītim, ī in, 587, I., 7. -itimus, adjs. in, 330, 1.

-itium, nouns in, 324.

-itō, frequentatives in, 336, II. -itūdo, nouns in, 325; i in, 587, IV., 1.

-itus in adverbs, i in, p. 345, footnote 2; 587, Il., 4. I in -itus, 587, I., 7.

-iu, suffix, 320, II.

-ium, deel. of nouns in, 51, 5. -Ium iu gen. pl., 62; 63; 64; 66; 67.

Nouns in -ium, 324; 327.
-ius, suflix, 320, II. Deel. of nouns in -ius, 51, 5. Adjs. in -ius, 330; 331; 333, 5. I or i in ius in gen., 577, I., 3, (3). I in tus in prop. names, 577, 5, N.

-īvus, adjs. in, 333, 5; ī in, 587, L, 6. -ix, deel. of nouns in, 95. -Ir, deel. of nouns in, 94; quant. of increm., 585, IV., 1.

## J

J, j, modifications of I, i, 2, 4; sound, 7; effect on quantity of preceding syllable, 16, I., 2; 576, II.; 576, 2; interchanged with i, 28; dropped, 36, 4.

-ja, suffix, 320, I.

Jacio, spelling and pronunciation of compds., 36, 4.

Jam, compds. of, w. present, 467, 2;

w. impert., 469, 2. -jans, suffix, 320, I.

Jecur, deel., 77, 4.

Joeus, plur. joei, joea, 141. -jor, sutlix, 320, II.

Joy, force of adjs. expressing, 443. N. 1.

Jubar, quant. of increm., 585, I., 4, (1). Jubeo, constr., p. 310, foot-note 1; in

pass., 534, 1, N. 1. Jucundus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1;

w. supine, 547, 1. Juder, decl., 59.

Jūdicio, constr., 410, II., 1.

Jügerum, deel., 136, 1. Jügerum as unit of measure, 648, V.

Jugum, quant. of syllable before i in compds., 576, 2.

Julian calendar, 641.

Jungō w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1; w. abl., 419, 1, 1).

Juppiter, decl., 66, 3.

Jūrātus w. active meaning, 257, N. 2. Jūs, deel., 61.

Jūsjūrandum, deel., 126.

Jūsso for jūssero, 240, 4. Juvenal, versification, 630.

Juvenis, deel., p. 36, foot-note 3; com-

par., 168, 4.

Juvô w. aceus., 385, H., N. 1. Juxta w. accus., 433.

#### K

K seldom used, 2, 6. -ka, suffix, 320, I.

Karthano, deel., 66, 4.

Kindred words near each other, 563. Knowing, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., \_1; 535, I., 1, (2).

Knowledge, adjs. of, w. gen., 399, 1. 2; p. 315, foot-note 2; w. force of adverbs, 443, N. 1.

L

L, stems in, decl., 60; nouns in, decl., 75; gend., 111; 112. Quánt. of final syllables in l, 579, 2; 580, II. -la, la, suffixes, 320. Nouns in -la,

Labials, 3, II.; 3, N. 1, I.; 3. Labial

stems, 57.

Lacer, decl., 150, N., 1). Lacrimo w. accus., 371, III., N. 1.

Lacus, deel., 117, 1, 2).

Luedo w. accus., 385, II., N. 1.

Luctus w. force of adverb, 443, N. 1. Laevā, constr., 425, 2,

Lampas, deel., 68. Language, Latin, 638.

Lapis, decl., 58.

Lar, quant. of increm., 585, I., 4, (1). Lassus not compared, 169, 4.
Latin period, 573. Lat. lang. and

LATIN period, 573. Lat. lang. and literature, 638. Early Latin, 639. Lat. authors, 640.

Learning, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., 1.

Leaving, verbs of, w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2).

Lengthening of vowels, 20.

-lēns, -lentus, adjs. in, 328.

Leo, decl., 60.

Lepus, quant. of increm., 585, H., 3. Lesser Ionic, 597, N.; Archilochian, 617, N.; Aselepiadean, 628, IV.; Sapphie, 628, VI.; Alcaie, 628, VIII.

Letters, classification, 3; sounds, 5 ff. Names of letters indecl., 128, 1. Tenses in letters, 472, 1.

-leus, nouns in, 321, N.

Levo, constr., p. 217, foot-note 5; p. 219, foot-note 1.

 $L\bar{e}x$ , quant. of increm., 585, III., 3.

-li, suffix, 320, II.

Libens w. force of adverb, 443, N. 1. Liber, Bacchus, liberi, decl., 51, 4. Liber, era, erum, 149.

Līberō, eonstr., p. 217, foot-note 5; p. 219, foot-note 1.

Līhra, 648, I.; divisions, 648, I., 1. Lihrō, constr., 425, 2, N. 1.

*Liceō* w. abl., p. 226, foot-note 1. *Licet*, 311, 4; w. subj., 515, 1II. Pleonasm w. licet, 636, III., 9.

Liger, decl., 66, III., 1.

Ligns w. short increm., p. 343, footnote 3. Likeness, dat. w. adjs. of, 391, I.;

391, Il., 4. Limit, accus. of, 380.

Linter, deel., 65, 1, 2).

Liqui, i in, 590, 1. Liquid measure, Rom., 648, III.

Liquids, 3, 11., 4; developing vowels. 29, N. Liquid stems, 60.

Līs, decl., p. 38, foot-note 4; quant. of increm., 585, IV., 2.

-lis, adjs. in, 333.

Literature, Lat., 638. Litotes, 637, VIII.

Littera, litterae, 132. Litteras dare,

385, Í, N. *Litum*, i in, 590, 1. -lo, suffix, 320, II.

LOCATIVE, 45, 2; 48, 4; 51, 8; 66, 4; 120, N. Locatives as adverbs, 304, III. Abl. w. locat., 363, 4, 2). Syntax of locat., 367, 2; 411, III.; 425, II.; 426, 2. Locat. abl., 425, ff.

Loco, constr., 380, N. Locuples, quant. of increm., 585,

Hf., 3.

Locus, plur., 141. Loco, constr., 415, II., N. Loco, locis, constr., 425, 2. Logacedie verse, 627 ff.

Long measure, Rom., 648, IV. Long syllables, 575. Long stem-syllables in primitives, 595. long vowel shortened in hiatus, 608, II., N. 3.

Longinguus, superlat. wanting, 168, 3. Longius without quam, 417, 1, N. 2.

-ls, decl. of nouns in, 90. Luctor w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1.

Lūdicer, defect., 159, II. Lūdus, lūdī, 132.

 $Lu\bar{e}s$ , defective, 134.

-lus, -lum, nouns in, 321; adjs., 332. Lāx, without gen. plur., 133, 5; quant. of increm., 585, V., 2.

Lycārgīdēs, ī in, p. 345, foot-note 3. Lynx, deel., p. 38, foot-note 3.

Lyric metres of Horace, 631; index,

## М

M changed to n, 33, 4; assimilated to s, 34, 1, N.; developing  $\rho, 34, 1, N.$ Stems in m, 60. Prepositions in m, p. 149, foot-note 2. Quant. of final syllables in m, 579, 2; 580, II. M final clided, 608, I.

-ma, -mā, suffixes, 320.

Maereō, constr., 371, III., N. 1. Magis in comparison, 170; 444, 2, notes 1 and 2. Non magis-quam, 555, Il., 1.

. Magnus compared, 165. eonstr., p. 213, foot-note 2.

Major in expressions of age, p. 222, foot-note 4.

Making, verbs of, w. two aces., 373.

Male compared, 306, 2. Dat. w. compds. of male, 354, 4, N. 1. E in

male, 581, IV., 4. Mālō, constr., p. 274, foot-note 1; 499, 2; p. 310, toot-note 1. Is in maris, 581, VIII., 3, N.

Malus, compar., 165.

-man, sutfix, 320, I.

Manifestus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Manner, adverbs of, 305, N. 2, 3). Abl. of manner, 419, III. Manner expressed by particip., 549, 1. Manus, gend., 118.

Mare, decl., 63; 63, 2. Mari, eonstr., 425, 2.

Margarita, plur., 142.

Martial, metres, 633, II. Mas, deel., p. 38, foot-note 4; quant.

of increm., 585, I., 4, (2). Masculine caesura, 611, N.

Mastery, adjs. of, w. gen., 399, I., 3; verbs of, w. gen., 410, V., 3. Material expressed by abl., 415.

terial nouns, 39, 2, 3); plur., 130, 2. Maturus, compar., 163, 1, N. Matutinus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 5. Maxime in adverbial comparison, 170. Maximi, constr., p. 213, foot-note 2.

Means, abl. of, 418; 420. Means expressed by particip., 549, 1. Measure of difference, abl. of, 417, 2.

Roman measures, 646; 648.

Mécastor, interj., p. 152, foot-note 4.

Med for me, 184, 5. Medeor w. dat., 385, H., N. 3.

Medial vowels, 3, I., 2.

Medius designating part, 440, N. 2. Medius fidius, mehercule, mehercules, interj., p. 152, foot-note 4.

Mel, defect., 133, 4, N.

Melius w. indicat., 475, 5.

Melos, decl., 68, 6. Members of complex sentences, 348, N. 1.

Memē for mē, 184, 4.

Memini w. gen., 406, II.; w. acc., 497; w. pres. infin., 537, 1.

Memor, deel., 155. Memor w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Quant. of inerem. of memor, 585, II., 3.

Memorabilis w. sup., 547, 1. -men, suffix, 320, II.; nouns in, 327. Mendicus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 4. Mensa, decl., 48.

Mensis, deel., p. 36, foot-note 3. -mento, suffix, p. 157, foot-note 1.

-mentum, nouns in, 327. Mepte for me, 154, 5.

Merces, quant. of increm., 585, HL, 3.

Meridies, gend., 123; defect., 130, 1, 4). Messis, deet., 62, 111., 1.

-met, forms in, 184, 3; 185, N. 2.

Metaphor, 637, H. Metathesis, 635, 5.

Metonymy, 637, 111.

Metre, 601, N. 3.

Metrical equivalents, 598. Metr. name of verse, 603.

Metuō, constr., 385, 1; p. 274, footnote 3.

Meus, decl., 185, N. 1. Mī for mihī, 184.

Middle voice, 465.

Miles, deel., 58.

Militia, decl., 48, 4; constr., 426, 2. Mille, decl., 159, L.; use, 174, 4; 178. Milia mase, by synesis, 461, 2.

Million sesterces, how denoted, 647, IV.

-**min**, suffix, 320, H.

-minī as pers. end., p. 118, foot-note 3. Minimi, constr., p. 213, foot-note 2.

-**minō** in imperat., 240, 5. Minor caesura, p. 357, foot-note 1. Minor, minus, without quam, 417, N. Minoris, constr., 405; p. 213,

foot-note 2. Minus, minime, as negatives, 552, 3.

Non minus-quam, 555, 11., 1. Mirificus, compar., 164,

Miror w. nec., 371, III., N. 1; w. gen., p. 217, foot-note 5; p. 310, foot-note 2.

Mirum w. quantum, 305, N. 4.

Marus not compared, 169, 4.

Mis for met, 184, 5.

Mise θ w. dat., 385, 3; p. 201, foot-note 1; w. acc. and dat., p. 201, foot-note 2; w. abl., 419, 1, 1), (2). Miser, decl., 150, N.

Misereor, miseresco, w. gen., 406. Miserescit, miscretur, constr., 410, IV., N. 1.

Miseret, constr., 409, III.

Mitto w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2). mo, suffix, 320, 11.

Modifiers, 357 ff. Position of modifiers, of nouns, 565; adjs., 566; verbs, 567; adverbs, 568. Modius, 648, II.

Modo, 311, 3. Modo, modo ne, w. subj. of desire, 483, 6. Modo w. subj. in condit., 513, I. Non modo -sed ctium (vērum ctiam), 554, L., O final in mode and compds., 581,

Modus, circumlocutions w., 636, III.,

Molestus w. dat., p 205, foot-note 1. Molessus, 633, 111., 1, N.

-mon, suffix, 320, 11.

Moneō, constr., 374, 2; p. 193, foot-note 3; 410, 1., 2; p. 274, foot-note 1. Money, Roman, 646 ff.

-mōniā, -mōnio, suffixes, p. 157, foot-note 1; monia, nouns in, 327. -monium, nouns in, 327.

Monocolon, p. 352, foot-note 3. Monometer, 603, N. 2.

Monosyllabie preps. repeated, 636, HL., 6.

Monosyllables, quant., 579. Monosyllables at end of line, 613, N. 2. Months, Roman, 641; 642, III., 2;

names of, originally adjs., p. 36; foot-note 2; gender, 42, L., 2; names of, in -ber, deel., 65, 1, 1). Moons, 196. Mood signs, 244 ff. Indic., 466 ff. Subj., 477 ff.; 490 ff. Imperat., 487 ff. Moods in subord. clauses, 490 ff.; in condit. sentences, 506 ff.; in concess. clauses, 514 ff.; in causal clauses, 516 ff.; in temp. clauses, 518 ff.; in indir. disc., 523 ff.; in indir. elauses, 529. Infinit., 532 ff.

Morae or times, 597.

 $M\bar{o}s$ ,  $m\bar{o}r\bar{e}s$ , 132. Motion to, how expressed, 384, 3, 1); 385, 4, 1); 386, 3.

Moveo w. abl., 414, II.; w. subj., p.

274, foot-note 2.

-ms, deel, of nouns in, 88. Mulciber, deel., 51, 4, 3). Multī, indef. num., 175, N. 3. Multimodīs, 304, II., 1, N.

Multiplication, how expressed, 174, 2,

Multiplicatives, 173, 1.

Multitūdo w. plur. verb, 461, 1. Multus, compar., 165; plur., 175, N. 3. Mus, deel., 64; p. 38, foot-note 4. Mutes, 3, II., 5.

Muto, constr., 422, N. 2.

N assimilated to l, 34, 2; to m, 34, 3; dropped, 36, 3, N. 3; 36, 5, 3). Stems in n, 60. Deel. of nouns in Stems in n, 60. n, 76; gend., 113. Quant. of final syllables in n, 580, H., w. notes 1 and 2.

-**na**, -**nā**, suffixes, 320. Nam, 310, 5; w. emphasis, 351, 4, N. 1. Name, dat. of, 387, N. 1; gen. of, 387,

Names, Roman, 331, N. 5; 439, 4, N.;

N. 2. Name of verse, 603.

649. Names of towns, constr., 380. II.; 412, II.; 425, II.; 428. Namque, 310, 5; 554, V., 2.

Nasals, 3, II., 2; developing vowels, 29, N.

Nātālis, nātālēs, 132.

Natus w. abl., 415, 11.

Naucī, eonstr., p. 213, foot-note 3. Nāvis, deel., 62, III.

Nd shortens preceding vowel, p. 37, foot-note 2.

-Ne, interrog. particle, 310, 2, N.; 311, 8; in questions, 351, 1 and 2; in double questions, 353, 1; in indir. questions, 529, 1 and 3. Position of -ne, 569, III., 4. E elided before

consonant, 608, I., N. 2.

 $N\bar{e}$ , 311, 4 and 5; 552; w. subj. of desire, 483, 3; 489, 3; w. imperat., destrict 433, 3, 433, 5; W. Imperiat., 488; W. subj. of purpose, 497, II.; 498, III., notes 1 and 2; omitted, 499, 2. Ne in concessions, 515, III. Ne non, 552, 1. Ne quidem, 553, 2; 569, III., 2. Ne or ne as prefix, 594, 2,

-nē, nouns in, 322, N.

Nearness, dat. w. adjs. of, 391, I.; gen., 391, 4.

Nec, 310, 1; 554, I., 2. Nec-nec (neque), nec-et (que), et-nec, 554, I., 5. Position of nec in poetry, 569, III., N. E in nec, 579, 3.

Necessārius w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Necessary, dat. w. adjs. signifying,

391, 1. Necesse est, constr., 502, 1.

Necne, 310, 2, N.; 311, 8; 353, 2, N. 3;  $5\overline{29}$ , 3, 2).

Nectar, quant. of increm., 585, I., 4,

Nectō w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1.

Nēdum w. subj., 483, 3, N.; ē in, 594, 2, N. 2.

Needing, constr. w. verbs of, 414, I. Nēfas, defect., 134: w. sup., 547, 1.

Negatives, 552; w. subj. of desire, 483, 3. Two neg., 553. Gen. neg., 553, 1 and 2. Position of neg., 569,

 $\overline{\text{IV}}$ , 1.  $N\bar{v}m\bar{b}$ , use, 457, 1; followed by  $qu\bar{v}n$ ,  $\bar{v}$ ;  $n\bar{v}m\bar{b}$ ,  $\bar{v}$ ;  $n\bar{v}$ p. 278, foot-note 3.  $\vec{E}$  in  $n\bar{e}m\bar{\delta}$ , 594, 2, N. 2.

Něnu, u in, p. 340, foot-note 1.

 $N\bar{e}p\bar{o}s$ , deel., 58.

Nēquam ēquam indecl., 159, I.; compar., 165, N. 2; ē in, 594, 2, N. 2.

Neque, 310, 1; 554, 1, 2. Neque—neque, 553, 2; 554, I., 5. Neque—et, et—neque, 554, I., 5. Ne-quidem, 553, 2; 569, III., 2. Negniquam, neguitia, e in, 594, 2, N.

Noreis, e in, p. 845, foot-note 1. Ne-Nesció quis, qui, 191, N. : 455, 2. Nesció w. interrog. adv., 305, N. 3. scio quis, quomodo, w. indie., 529, 5,

3). Nesció an, 529, 3, N. 2. Nescius w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Neu, see Neve.

-neus, adjs. in, 329. Neuter, decl., 151, 1.

NEUTER nom., acc., and voc. pl., 46, 2, 1). Neuter by signification, 42, N.; by ending, Deel. II., 53; Deel. III., 111; Deel. IV., 118. Neuter pron. or adj., as cognate acc., 371, II.; 375; w. part. gen., 397, 3; in pred., 438, O in increm. of neut., 585, Il., 1.

Nere, neu, 311, 5; w. subj. of desire, 483, 3; w. imperat., 488; w. subj. of purpose, 497, 1, N. Neve—neve, 552, 2. E in neve, 594, 2, N. 2.

Nor, defect., 133, 5.

Nf lengthens preceding vowel, 16, N.

Ni, 311, 3; in condit., 507 ff. Ni = but, 'except,' 507, 3, N. 3. Nifor ne, 552, 1.

-ni, suffix, 320.

Night, Rom. division of, 645; 645, 1. Nihil, defect., 134; for non, 457, 3. Nihil aliud nisi, nihil aliud quam, 555, III., 1.

Nihili, constr., 404, N. 2.

Nimis w. genit., p. 209, foot-note 3. Nimium quantum, 305, N. 4.

Nisi, 311, 3; in condit., 507 ff. Nisi = 'but,' 'except,' 507, 3, N. 3; = 'except,' 555, 111, 1. Visi Nisi st, 507, 3, N. 4. Nisi quod, nihil aliud nisi, 555, III., 1. I final in nisi, 581, 1., 1.

Nitor, constr., 425, 1, 1), N.; 498, II., N. 1.

Nir, deel., p. 38, foot-note 4; 66; w. short increm., p. 343, foot-note 2. -ro, suflix, 320, II.

Noto, constr., 499, 2; p. 310, foot-note Nolt, nolite, in prohibitions, 489, 1). I in nôlite, etc., 586, III., 4.

Nomen w. dat., 387, N. 1; w. gen., 387, N. 2. Nomine w. gen. of crime, 410, II., 1. Nomen in name of a Rom. citizen, 649.

NOMINATIVE neut. pl. in adjs., 158, 1. Syntax of nom., 368; two nom., 373, 2. Nom. for voc., 369, 2. Nom. in exclamations, 381, N. 3, 2). - Es in nom. sing., 581, VI., 1; -Es, 581, VIII., 2; -ūs, 581, IX., 1; in plur., 581, IX., 2.

Non, p. 145, foot-note 2; 552. modo non, non solum non, 552, 2. Non solum (non modo or non tantum)—sed etiam (vērum etiam), 554, I., 5. Non minus—quam, non ma-gis—quam, 555, II., 1. Non quo, quod, quin, quia, w. subj., 516, 2. Non w. gen. negat., 553, 1. Position of *non*, 569, IV.

Nondum, 555, I., 1. Nones, 642, I., 2.

Nonne, 311, 8; 351, 1 and 2.

Nos for ego, noster for meus, 446, N. 2. Nostras, decl., 185, N. 3.

Nostri, nostrum, 446, N. 3.

Nous, etymol., 39 ff.; gend., 40 ff.;

pers. and num., 44; cases, 45; deel., 46 ff. ; defect., 122 ; 129 ff. ; indect., 128; heteroclites, 135 ff.; heterogeneous, 141 ff. Syntax, 362 ff.; agreement, 362 ff.; general view of cases, 365 ff.; nom., 368, voc., 369; acc., 370 ff.; dat., 382 ff.; gen., 393 ff.; abl., 367; 411 ff.; w. preps., 432 ff. Nouns as adjs., 441, 3. Position of modifiers of nouns, 565.

Novus, compar., 167, 2.

Nox, deel., p. 38, foot-note 4. Norius w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

-ns, decl. of nouns in, 65, 3; 90. lengthens preceding vowel,

Nt dropped, p. 19, foot-note 9; shortens preceding vowel, p. 37, footnote 2.

-nu, suffix, 320.

Nūbēcula, p. 159, foot-note 1. Nābēs, decl., 62.

Nābō w. dat., 385, N. 3.

Nado, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Nullus, decl., 151, 1; for Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1; use, 457, 2; for non, 457, 3. Nullus followed by quin, p. 278, foot-note 3.

Num, 310, 2, N.; 311, 8; 351, 1; in indir. quest., 529, H., 1, N. 3.

-**num**, nouns in, 327.

Number, 44; in verbs, 199. Gen. in descriptions of number, 419, 2, 1). Numerals, 171 ff.; adjs., 172 ff.; deel.,

175 ff.; symbols, 180; adverbs, 181; in compounding numbers, 174, 3. Numerals w. gen., 397, 2. Numer-Numerals w. gen., 397, 2. als in dates, 642, III., I.

 $N\bar{u}mmus, 647.$ Nunc, 304, 1., 4; 305, IV. Nuntior, constr., 534, N. 1, (2). Nuper, 304, IV., N. 2; compar., 306, 4. -nus, adjs. in, 329.

Nusquam w. gen., 397, 4.

 $O, \bar{o}, sound, 5; 10; 11.$   $\bar{O}$  final short-5, 10, 11. Of that short-ened, 21, 2, 3). O-nouns, 51. Deel. of nouns in δ, δ, 60, 4; 72; quant. of increm., 585, II., 5, (2); gend., 99; 100. Num. adverbs in -δ, 181, N. 2. Origin of  $\bar{o}$  118, foot-note 5. Origin of o final in verbs, p. Adverbs in  $-\bar{o}$ , 304, II., 1 and 2. Superlat. adverbs in -ō, 306, 6.  $\overline{O}$  or o, final, 580, I.; 581, II.; in increm. of decl., 585; 581, II.; in increm. of decl., 585; 585, II.; conj., 586. O, interp., 312, 1, 2, and 5; w. acc., 381, N, 2. O in O hiatus, 608, II., 1.

-o, -ō, suffixes, 320, II. Nouns in -ō,

326, 2,

Ob in compds., 344, 5; in compds. w. dat., 386. *Ob* w. acc., 433; 433, I.; w. ger., p. 315, foot-note 5. Obeying, dat. w. verbs of, 385, I.

Obiter, 304, I., 2.

Овјест, direct, 371; external, 371. I., 1; internal, 371, I., 2. Object omitted, 371, III., N. 4. Infin. or clause as object, 371, IV.; 540, N. Indir. object, 382 ff. Object clauses of purpose, 498; of result, 501, II. Objective compds., 343, II. Object. gen., 396, HI

Oblique cases, 45, 1; use of, 370 ff. Obliviscor w. gen., 406, II.; w. acc.,

Oboediens w. two dats., 390, N. 3. Obviam, 304, I., 2. Occisit for occiderit, 240, 4. Occupatio, p. 373, foot-note 2. Octor, compar., 166. Octo, o final in, 581, IV., 2. Oe, sound, 6; 12. Oedipus, u in, 581, IX., 3, N. Offendō, constr., 385, II., N. 1.

Öhē. interi., 312, 3; ō in, 577, I., 4: ē in, 581, IV., 4. Oi, sound, 6, 1; 12, 1.

-**5is**, ō in, 587, I., 3; 577, 5, N. -ōius in prop. names, δ in, 577, 5,

-ola, o in, 587, II., 3. -ōlentus, ō in, 587, IV., 1. Oleō w. acc., 371, III., N. 1. Ollus, olle, for ille, p. 73, foot-note 1, (2).

-olum, -olus, o in, 587, II., 3.

Omission of consonants, 36; of oro in adjurations, 569, II., 3.

Omnis, gen. of, w. possessives, 398, 3. -on, -on, suffixes, 320, II.; -on in Greek gen. plur., 68, 4. Quant. of increm. of nouns in -on, 585, II., 5,

-**ō**ma, ō in, 587, 1., 5.

-one in patronymies, 322, N.; ō in. 587, I., 3. Onero, constr., p. 225, foot-note 3.

-**ōnī**, ō in, 587, I., 8. Onomatopoeia, 637, XI., 5.

-**ōnus**,  $\delta$  in, 587, I., 5.

Open vowel, 3, 1., 1. Opera, operae, 132. Oper subj., p. 274, foot-note 2. Operam do w.

Opimus, superlat. wanting, 168, 3. Oportet, constr., 502, 1; 537, 1. Opposing, constr. w. verbs of, 505, II. *Ops*, decl., p. 38, foot-note 3; 133, 1.

Optative in fut. and in pres. subj., p. 117, foot-note 4. Optat. subj., 484, 1. Outimates, decl., 64, 2, 4).

Optimus w. supine, 547, 1.

Opto, constr., p. 274, foot-note 1. Opus, 'work,' decl., 61. Opus, 'need,' defect., 134; constr., 414, IV.; w. sup., 547, 1. Opus est w. subj..

502, 1. -ōr, -ōr, suffixes, 320, II. Nonns in

-or, 327. O shortened in -or, 21, 2, 2). Gen. of nouns in -or, 99, 101. -Or in Plantus for -or, 580, III., N. 2. Quant. of increm. of nouns in -or, 585, II., 5, (1).

ŌRĀTIŌ OBLĪQUA, sec Indirect Discourse. Ōrātio rēcta, 522, 1.

Orbis, decl., 62, IV

Orhō, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Order of vowels in strength, 22.

Ordinal numbers, 172; 174, decl., 179. ōrius, ō in, 587, III., 1.

Qrnō, constr., p. 225, foot-note 3. Oro w. two aces., 374, 2; w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 1. Oro omitted in

adjurations, 569, II., 3. Orpheus, decl., 68. Orthography, 1, I.; 2 ff.

Ortus w. abl., 415, II.

-orus, compar. of adjs. in, 169, 3. Ō in -ōrus, 587, 1., 6.

Os, quant. of increm., 585, II., 1. Os, ossis, decl., p. 38, foot-note 4; o

in, 579, 3. -os, sutfix, 320, II. Sound of -os,

11, 1. Greek neuters in -08, 68, 6. Deel. of nouns in -\(\bar{o}s\), -\(\operato s\), 83; 133, 4, N.; gend., 99; 102. Os or os final, 580, III.; 581, VII. Os or 08

Ossu , p. 50, foot-note 1. Ostroi, plur., 142. -5sus, adjs. in, 328; ō in, 587, I., 6. -ōtis, o in, 587, L, 3. -0613, ō in, 587, I., 7. Ovid. versification, 630. Owing, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., 1. -ox, -ox, decl. of nouns in, 96. Oxymoron, 637, XI., 5.

P P changed to b, 33, 2; to m, 33, 3, N.; developed by m, 34, 1, N. Paene w. perf. ind., 471, 2; w. hist. tenses of indic., 511, 1, N. 4. Paenitet, constr., 409, III.; 410, IV. Tulam w. abl., 437, 2.
Palatals, 3, 11., N. 1, 1, 1.
Pulus for palūs, 581, 1X., 1, N.
Puluster, deel., 153, N. 1, 1).
Punthūs, voc., 54, N. 4.
Punthūs, voc., 54, N. 4. Papae, interj., 312, 2. Par, constr., p. 205, foot-notes 1 and 3; quant. of increm., 585, 1., 4, (1). Paraleipsis, 637, XI., 2. Parasitic u, 5, 4. Pardoning, dat. w. verbs of, 385, II. Parēns, gen. plur., p. 38, foot-note 2. Parentage expressed by abl., 415. Parenthetical clauses in indir. disc., 524, 2, 1); in indir. clauses, 529, II., N. 1, 2). Paries, es in, 581, VI., 1. Paris, deel., 68. Paroemiae verse, 604, N. 2. Taronomasia, 637, XI., 7.
Purs, acc., 64, N. 2.
Purs, partes, 132.
Purs in fractions, 174, 1.
Purte, partibus, constr., 425, 2. Pars w. plur. verb, 461, 1. Particeps w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Participation, gen. w. adjs. of, 399, I.,

3; w. verbs of, 410, V., 3. Pagriciples, 200, IV.; endings, 248. Particip. in seq. of tenses, 495, IV. Agreement of particip., 438, 1; 460, 1. Particip for infin., 535, L, 4. Use of particip., 548 ff.; denoting time, cause, manner, means, 549, 1; condit., concess., 549, 2; purpose, 549, 3; for relat. clause, 549, 4; for prin, clause, 549, 5; w. negat., 549, N. 1. Particip, rendered by noun, 549, N. 2.

Particles, 302 ff.; adverbs, 303 ff.; preps., 307; 308; conjs., 309 ff.; interjections, 312. Syntax of particles, 551 ff.; adverbs, 551 ff. lnterrog, particles, p. 152, foot-note 3; 351, 1; 555, 8. - In particles, 581, III., 3.

Partim, 304, I., 1; w. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3. Partim—partem for pars-pars, 461, 5.

Partitive apposition, 364. Part. gen., 396, IV.; 397.

Parts of speech, 38.

Partus, decl., 117, 1, 2),

Parum w. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3. Parvus, compar., 165. Parvi, constr., p. 213, foot-note 2.

Passer, decl., 60. Passive Voice, 195, II.; impers., 195,

II., 1. Passive constr., 464; 534,1. Passive like middle, 465. Passus, 648, IV., N. Pastor, pater, deel., 60.

Paterfamilias, deel., 126.

Patior, constr., p. 310, N. 1. Patrials, 331, N. 1; quant. of increm., 585, H., 5.

Patronymies, 322. Pauci, defect., 159, II. Pause, caesural, 602. Pax, defeet., 133, 5.

Pecu, deel., p. 50, foot-note 1. Peculiarities, in conjugat., 235 ff.; in seq. of tenses, 495; in expressions of purpose, 499; of result, 502. Pe-

cultarities in Rom. calendar, 642. Pecus w. short increm., p. 343, footnote 3.

Pedester, deel., 153, N. 1, 1). Pelagus, deel., 51, 7; gend., 53, 2. Penalty, how expressed, 410, III. Penates, deel., 64, 2, 4).

Penes w. acc., 433; es in, 581, VI., 2. Peninsulas, constr. of names of, 380, 11., 2, 2).

Pentameter, 603, N. 2; dactylie, 614. Penthemimeral eaesura, v. 356, footnote 4.

Penthemimeris, 597, N. 2. Penus, gend., 118, (2).

Her in compds., 170, 1; 344, 5; w. acc., 372. Per w. acc., 433; 433, I.; denoting agency, 415, I., 1, N. 1; manner, 419, III., N. 3. Per st, 452, 1, N. Position of per in adjunctions, 569, II., 3. E in per, 579, 3. Perceiving, constr. w. verbs of, 535, L. Percontor w. two nees., 374, 2.

Perfect Tense, 197; 198. Perf. system, 222, H. Perfect stems, 252 ff. Perf. wanting, 262, N. 2; 272, N. 2; 282; 284, N. 2. Perf. w. pres. meaning, 297, L., 2. Syntax of pert. indic., 471; subj., 481; in subj. of

desire, 483, 2; in potent. subj., 485, N. 1; in prohibitions, 489, 3). Pert. in seq. of tenses, 492; 493; 495; Perf. in condition, 507, 496, II. H.; 509; 511, 1; 511, 2, N.; 513, N.; 513, N. 1.; in concess., 515, H., 2; in temp. clauses, 518, N. 1; 520, N. 1; in indir. disc., 525, 1; 527, H.; 527, H., N. 2. Perf. infin., 537. Perf. particip., 550; rendered by verbal noun, 549, 3, N. 2. - k in perf. subj., 581, VIII., 5. Quant. of pen. of dissyllable perfects, 590. Quant. of first two syllables of trisyllabic reduplicated perfects, 591.

Perhibeor, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2).

Pericles, deel., 68.

Periculum est w. subj., p. 274, footnote 3.

Period, Lat., 573. Periods of Lat. literature, 640. Periphrastic conjugat., 233; 234; use,

466, N.; p. 261, foot-note 4; 476, 1; in condit. sentences, 511, 2. Peri-

phrast. fut. infin., 537, 3. Peritus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; of ger., p. 315, foot-note 3.

Permisceo w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1. Perniciosus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Person of nouns, 44; verbs, 199; in

indir. disc., 526. Personal pron., 183, 1; 184; use, 446; reflexive use, 448; 449. Pers. endings of verbs, 247. Pers. constr. in indir. questions, 529, 6; in pass.

voice, 534, 1.

Personification, 637, IX. Persuading, dat. w. verbs of, 385, II. Pertaedet, pertaesum est, constr., 410,

IV., notes 1 and 3. Pes, és in compds., 581, VI., 1. as unit of measure, 648, IV.

Petō, constr., 374, 2, N. 4. Phalaecian verse, 629, I.

Pherecratic verse, 628, II. and IV.-VI. Phōcais, a in, p. 345, foot-note 1. Phonetic Changes, 19 ff. Pho

decay, p. 12, foot-note 1.

Phryx, decl., 68.

 $Ph\bar{j}$ , 312, 4. Piget, constr., 409, III.; 410, IV.  $Pil\bar{\imath}$ , constr., p. 213, foot-note 3.

Pix wants gen. plur., 133, 5; w. short increm., p. 343, foot-note 2.

Place, adverbs of, 305, l., II., and III.; 305, N. 2, 1). Endings of designations of place, 323. Constr. w. verbs meaning to place, 380, N. Place whither, 380; where, dat., 385, 4, 4); abl., 425; locat., 425,

II.; 426; whence, 412. Adjs. of place for Eng. adverbs, 443, N. 2. Plautus, quantity of syllables in, 578, N. 2; 580, III., notes 2-4; metres, 633, III.

Pleasing, dat. w. verbs of, 385, I. Plebecula, formation, p. 159, foot-

Plebs, quant. of increm., 585, 111., 3. Plenty, constr. w. verbs of, 410, V.; 421, II.; 421, N. 1; w. adjs. of, 421, 11.

 $Pl\bar{e}nus$  w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Pleonasm, 636, III.

Pluperfect, 197; 222, II. Plup. indic., 472; 476, 2; in seq. of tenses, Hadic, 472, 470, 2; III sed, of tenses, 493; in temp, clauses, 518, N. 2; 521, Il., 1. Plup. subj., 482; in subj. of desire, 483, 2; in seq. of tenses, 493, 495, I.; 496, II., (2); in condit., 507, III.; 509, N. 3; 510; 513, N. 1; in concess., 515, II., 3; in temp. clauses, 518, 1; 519, 2, N. 1; 520, II.; 521, II., 2; in indir. disc., 527, 2; 527, II. and III.; 527,

Plural, 44; wanting, 130. for sing., 130, 3; 446, N. 2. Plur. Plur. w. change of meaning, 132. -E in Greek plur., 581, 111., 1. plur., 581, 7111., 1. -Is in

Plūrimi, indef. pum., 175, N. 3; gen.

of price, p. 213, foot-note 2. *Plūs*, 165, N. 1; without *quam*, 417, 1, N. 2. *Plūris*, constr., p. 213, foot-note 2; 405. Quant. of increm.

of plūs, 585, V., 2. Poetical dat., 380, 4; 385, 4; 388, 4. Pollūx, quant. of increm., 585, V., 2. Polypus, u in, 581, IX., 3, N.

Polysyndeton, 636, III., 1.

Pondo, 648, I. Pone w. acc., 433.

Pōnō, constr., 380, N. positum, 592, 2. O in posui,

Por, insep. prep., 308. Por for port, 344, 6.

Porticus, gend., 118, (1). Portus, decl., 117, 1, 2).

Poscō w. two aces., 374, 2.

Position, syllables when long by, p. 338, foot-note 3.

Positive, 160; wanting, 166. Pos. for

compar., 444, 2, N. 3.

Possessive pronouns, 185; w. gen., 363, 4, 1); 398, 3; for gen., 396, II., N.; 401, N. 3; w. refert and interest, 408, I., 2. Use of poss. pron., 447; reflex, 448; 449. Possessive compds., 343, III. Possessive gen., 396, I.

Possessor, dat. of, 287.

Ibssum, in conclus., 511, 1, N. 2; w.

pres. infin., 537, 1.

Ibst in compds., 344, 5; w. dat., 386. Ibst, denoting interval of time, 430. Post w. acc., 433; 433, I.

Post-classical period, 640, III.

Ibstea, 304, IV., N. 2; in series, 554,

Posteāquam, 311, 1; in temp. clauses,

Posterus, compar., 163, 3. Ibsticus, 1 in, p. 345, foot-note 4.

Ibstis, decl., 62, IV.

Ibstmodum, 304, 1., 2.

Postpositive, 554, III., 4; 554, V., 3. Postquam in temp. clauses, 518; w. perf. indie., p. 260, foot-note 2.

Ibstremo in series, 554, I., N. 2. Postremus, force of, 440, N. 2; 442, N. Ibstridie w. gen., 398, 5; w. acc., 437, 1. Postridie quam in temp. clauses, 518, N. 3. E in postridie, p. 341, foot-note 2.

Postulo, constr., 374, 2; p. 274, footnote 1.

Ibtens w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Potential subj., 485; 486; in declar. sentences, 486, I.; in interrog. sentences, 486, II.; in subord. clauses,

486, III. Pottor w. gen., 410, V., 3; w. abl., 421, I.; w. acc., 421, N. 4; in gerund. constr., 544, N. 5.

Potus w. act. meaning, 257, N. 2. Prae in compds., 170, 1; w. dat., 386.

True w. abl., 434; 434, I. Quant. of prue in compds., 576, I., 1; 594, 4. Praecipio, constr., p. 274, foot-note 1. Praecox, quant. of increm., 585, II., 3. Praecurro, constr., p. 202, foot-note 1. Praeditue, constr., 420, N. 1, 4)

Praenomen, 649; abbreviated, 649, 1. Praesente w. plur., 438, 6, N.

Traesto, praestolor, constr., p. 202, foot-note 1.

Practer in compds. w. nec., 372. Practer w. acc., 433; 433, 1.

Praetereā in series, 554, l., N. 2.

Iraeut, 311, 2.

Predicate, 356, 2; simple, 360; complex, 361; modified, 361, 1. Pred. nouns, 360, N. 1; 362; for dat., 390, N. 2. Pred. adjs., 360, N. 1; 438, 2. Pred. acc., 373, 1. Pred. gen., 401 ff.; varieties, 402; verbs with, 403 ff.; pred. gen. of price, 404; 405. Pred. abl., 421, N. 4. Pred. after infin., 536, 2. Infin. as pred., 539, I. Predicates compared, 535, I., 6. Position of pred., 560,

Predicative roots, 314, I.

Preparations, 307; insep., 308; in compds., 344, 5 and 6. Compds. w. acc., 372; w. two accs., 376; w. dat., 386. Preps. in expressions of time, 379, 1; 429, 1 and 2; 430; of place, 380; 412; 425; of motion or direction, 384, 3, 1); denoting for, 384, 3, 3); of agency, 388, 2 Preps. after ndjs., 391, II., 1 and 3. Prep. with obj. for obj. gen., 396, III., N. 1; for part. gen., 397, 3, N. 3; tor gen. w. adjs., 400, 2 and 3; for gen. after verbs, 407, N. 2; 410, 1., 2; 410, 11., 3; after refert and in-terest, 408, I., 3; 408, IV.; expressing penalty, 410, 111.; separation, source, cause, 413; 414, N. 1.; 415; 416, I.; after compar., 417, notes 3 and 5; denoting accompaniment, 419, I.; manner, 419, III. Cases w. preps., 432 ff.; acc., 433; abl., 434; acc. or abl., 435. Special uses of preps., 433, I.; 434, I.; 435, Preps. originally adverbs, 436. Adverbs as preps., 437. Preps w. infin., 533, 3, N. 4; w. ger., 542, III.; 542, IV., (2); w. gerund. constr., 544, 2. Prep. between adj. and noun, 565, 3. Position of preps., 569, II. Quant. of insep. preps., 594, 2. Monosyllabic preps. repeated, 636, III., 6; other preps., 636, HL., 6, N. Presbyter, decl., 51, 4, 3).

Present, 197; 198, L., 1; 222, I. Pres. stem, 250; 251. Pres. indic., 466; 467; of gen. truths, customs, 467, II. Hist. pres., 467, HI.; in temp. clauses, 518, N. 1. Pres. subj., 479; in condit., 507, II.; 509; 513, N. 1; in concess., 515, II., 2; in indir. disc., 525, 1; 527, II. Pres. imperat., 487, 1. Pres. infin., 537. Pres. particip., 550. Pres. perf., 197, N. 1; 198, L. 2; 471, I. Pres. system, 222, l. -Is

in pres. subj., 581, VIII., 4. Priapeian verse, 629, II.

Price, gen. of, 404; 405; abl., 422. Pridie, locat., 120, N.; w. gen., 398, 5; w. acc., 437, 1. Pridie quam in temp. clauses, 520, N. 2. E in pridie, p. 241, foot-note 2.

Primary stems, 315; 317. Pri suffixes, p. 153, foot-note 6; 320. Prim. Irimum, primo, in series, 554, I., N. 2. Princeps, decl., 57.

Principal parts of verbs, 202; 220; Prin. clauses, 348, N. 257-288. 2; in indir. disc., 523; supplied by particip., 549, 5. Prin. tenses, 198, L.; in seq., 491 ff. Prin. clements of sentence, 357, 1.

Prior, primus, 166; rendered by relat. clause, 442, N.; by adverb, 443, N. 1, (2).

Priusquam, 311, 1; in temp. clauses,

Prīvō, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Pro, 312, 3; in hiatus, 608, II., 1.

Prō, prōd, in compds., 344, 5; prō in, 594, 5. Compds. w. dat., 386. Pro w. abl., 434; 434, I.; expressing in defence of, in behalf of, 384, 3, 2). Pro w. ger., p. 316, foot-note 1.

Proceleus matics, 633, III., 2, N. 1.

Proclitics, 18, 1, N. 1.

Proclivis without superlat., 168, 3; w. supine, 547, 1.

Procul w. abl., 437, 2.

*Prod* in compds., 344, 5. Prohibeo, constr., p. 310, foot-note 1. Prohibēsső for prohibuerő, 240, 4.

Prohibitions, subj. in, 484, 1V., w. N. 1; imperat., 487, 2, 2). Proinde, 310, 4.

Prolepsis, 440, 2; 636, IV., 3. Pronominal roots, 314, 11.

Pronouns, 182 ff.; pers., 183, 1; 184; substant., p. 70, foot-note 3; caseendings, 184, 1; possess., 185; de-mon., 186; relat., 187; interrog., 188; indef., 189; 190; correlat., 191. Prons. as adjs., 438, 1. Agreement of pron., 445. Use of pers. pron., 446; possess, 447 ff; reflex, 448; 449; demon., 450 ff; relat., 453; intercog., 454; indef., 455 ff. Prons. brought together, 569, 1., 2. Pron. redundant, 636, 111., 7.

Pronunciation of Latin, Roman, 5 ff.; Eng., 9 ff.; Continental, 15.

Prope w. acc., 433; 433, I.; w. perf. indic., 471, 2; w. hist. teuses of indic., 511, 1, N. 4.

Proper nouns, 39, 1; plur. of, 130, 2. Propinguus without superlat., 168, 3; constr.. p. 205, foot-notes 1 and 3.

Propior, proximus, 166; w. acc., 391, 2; 433 1., N. 2; w. force of Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1.

Propius w. acc., 437, 1; 433, 1., N. 2.

Proportionals, 173, 2. Propries, constr., p. 205, foot-notes 1

and 3. Propter w. acc., 433; 433, I.

Proptereā, 554, IV., 2. Prosody, 574 ff.; quant., 575 ff.; versification, 596 ff.; figures of pros.,

608. Prosopopeia, 637, 1X. Prosper, deel., 150, N., 1).

Prospicio, constr., 385, 1. Protinus, p. 145, foot-note 5. Prout, 311, 2.

Provideo, constr., 385, 1.

Prôvidus, compar., 164; w. gen., p. 210. foot-note 3.

Prōximē w. acc., 433, I., N. 2; 437, 1. Prōximus, see Propior.

Prūdēns, decl., 157; w. gen., p. 210,

foot-note 3; w. force of Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1, (1). -pte, pronouns in, 185, N. 2. Pudet, constr., 409, 111.; 410, IV.

Pudīcus, ī in, p. 345, foot-note 4. Puer, decl., 51.

Pūgnō w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1.

Puppis, decl., 62, III. Риврове, dat. of, 384, 1, 3); subj. of, 497 ff.; object clauses, 498; peculiarities, 499. Infin. of purpose, 533, II.; gerund, 542, I., N. 2; 542, III., N. 2; gerundive, 544, 2, N. 2; supine, 546; particip., 549, 3. Position of clauses of purpose, 572, III., N.

*Pūs*, defect., 133, N. -pus, compds. in, quant. of increm.. 585, II., 5, (3).

Puta, a in, 581, 111., 3.Pater, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2).

Pyrites, decl., 50. Pyrrhie, 597, N. 1. Pythiambic stanza, 631, XVII. and

Q, qu, dropped, 36, 3. Qu changed to c, 33, 1, N.

Quā, 304, 11., 3; 305, V.

XVIII.

Quaero, constr., p. 193, foot-note 1. Qualis, qualiscumque, 187, 4. Cujusmodi, etc., for qualis, 187, 4, N.

Qualis, interrog., 188, 4. Qualisticet, 191.

Quālisquālis, 187, 4.

Quality, abl. of, 419, II., w. N. Quam, p. 75, foot-note 1; 304, I., 4; 305, V.; p. 151, foot-note 1; 311, 2; w. comparat., 417; 444, 2; w. superlat., 170, 2, (2); w. infin., 524, 1, 2). Quam for postquam, 430, N. Quam pro, 417, 1, N. 5. 1, 3). Quam, quam ut, w. subj., 502, 2. Quam qui w. subj., 503, 11., 3.

Quam sī, 513, II. Tam-quam, non minus—quum, quam, 555, 11., 1. quam, 555, 111., 1. Quamdin, 311, 1. non magis-Nihil aliud

Quamobrem, 554, IV., 2.

Quamquam, p. 75, foot-note 1; 311, 4; in concess., 515, L; 515, notes 1 and 2; w. infin., 524, 1, 2).

Quamvis, 311, 4; in concess., 515, III.;

515, N. 3.

Quando, interrog., 305, IV.; relat., 311, 1 and 7; in causal clauses, Quando in compds., 594, 8. 516.

Quandōquidem, 311, 7; ō in, 594, 8. Quantity, 16; 575 if.; signs of, 16, N. 3; gen. rules, 576 if. Quant. in final syllables, 579 ff.; increments, 582 ff.; deriv. endings, 587; stem-syllables, 588 ff.; syllables before two consonants or a double eonsonant, 651.

Quantumlibet, quantumvis, 311, 4. Quantum vis in concess., 515, N. 6. Quantus, relat., 187, 4; interrog., 188, 4; correlat., 191. Quanti, constr., p. 213, foot-note 2; 405.

Quantusvis, indef., 191.

Quapropter, 554, IV., 2. Quare, 304, II., 1, N.; 554, IV., 2; è

in, p. 341, foot-note 2. Quasi, 311, 2; w. quidam, 456, 2; in condit., 513, II. I in quasi, 581, I., 1; a in, 594, 10.

Quaris, indet., 305, V.

Que, 310, 1; p. 151, foot-note 1; 554, I. Idem-que, 451, 5. Que-que, et-que, que-et, que-atque, neque (nec)—que, 554, I., 5. Position of que, 569, 111., 4. Que lengthened in Vergil, 608, V., N. 2. Quereus, deel., 119, 4.

Queror w. infin., p. 310, foot-note 2. Questioning, constr. w. verbs of, 374,

N. 3.

Questions, 351; double, 353; deliberat. in indir. disc., 523, Il., 1, N.; rhetor., p. 297, foot-note 2; indir.,

528, 2; 529, 1.

Qui, relat. pron., 187; 453; interrog., 188; 454; indef., 189; 190; 455; correlat., 191. Qui w. subj. of purpose, 497, l.; of result, 500, l.; 503. Qui in condit., 507, 2; concess., 515, III.; 515, N. 4; causal clauses, 517. Qui dicitur, vocatur, 453, 7. Quod as adverb. acc., 353, 6. Quod in restrict. clauses, 503, N. 1. I in cui, 581, I., 1.

Qui, adverb, 187, 1; 188, 2.

Quia, 311, 7; in eausal clauses, 516; w. relat., 517, 3, 2); w. infin., 524, 1, 2). A in quia, 581, III., 3.

Quicumque, gen. relat., 187, 3. Quidam, indef., 190, 2, 1); 191; use,

Quidem w. pron., 446, N. 1; position, 569, III.; 569, III., 3.

Quies, quant. of increm., 585, III., 3. Quilibet, gen. inder., 190, 2, 2); use,

Quin, p. 75, foot-note 2; 311, 6; w. subj., 500, II.; 501, II., 2; 504.

Quinum, 188, 3. Quinarius, 646.

Quinquatrus, gend., 118, (2).

Quippe, p. 75, foot-note 2; w. relat., 517, 3, 1).

Quiris, quant. of increm., 585, IV., 2. Quis, interrog., 188; use, 454; indef., 189; 190; use, 455; correlat., 191. I in quis, 579, 3. A in qua, inder., 579, 3. Quid redundant, 636, III., 7.

Quis for quibus, p. 74, foot-note 5.

Quisnam, 188, 3.

Quispium, indef., 190, 2, 1); use, 455. Quisquam, indet., 190, 2, 1); use, 457. Quisque, gen. indet., 190, 2, 2); use, 458; w. abl. abs., 431, N. 3; w. plur. verb, 461, 3. Placed next plur. verb, 461, 3. suus or sui, 569, I., 2.

Quisquis, gen. relat., 187, 3. Quidguid used of persons, 453, 1, N.

Quitum, i in, 590, 1.

Quivis, gen. indef., 190, 2, 2); use, 458; is in, 581, VIII., 3, N.

Quō, 304, 11., 3, N.; 305, 11.; 311, 5; w. part. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3; w. subj. of purpose, 497, 11.

Quoad, 311, 1; w. part. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3; in temp. clauses, 519. Quōeireū, 554, IV., 2. Quōeimque, 305, N. 1.

Quad, p. 151, foot-note 1; 311, 7; in causal clauses, 516.

Quod-clauses, 540, IV., w. N. quod, 555, III., 1. See also Qui.

Quoi for cui, quoius for cujus, p. 74, foot-note 5.

Quölibet, 305, 11.

Quom, 305, IV.; p. 151, foot-notes 1

and 4; 311, 1, 4, and 7.

Quiminus, 311, 5; w. subj., 497, II.; 499, 3, N. 2.

Quantum, composition, p. 6, foot-note 5; 311, 7; in causal clauses, 516; w. relat., 517, 3, 2). Quoque, 310, 1; 554, 1., 4; position,

569, III.; o in, 594, 10.

Quōquō, 305, N. 1. Quorsum, 305, II. Quot, relat., 187, 4; interrog., 188, 4; correlat., 191. Quotannis, 304, II., 1, N. Quotièns, 305, IV. Qnotus, relat., 187, 4; interrog., 188, 4. Quōvīs, 305, II. Quum, 305, IV.; see Cum.

## R

R assimilated to l, 34, 2; dropped, 36, 3, N. 3. Noun-stems in r, 60; verbstems in supine, 256, 1. Decl. of nouns in r, 77. Quant. of final syllables in r, 580, II., w. N. 2.

-ra, -rā, suffixes, 320. Radix, decl., 59. Rastrum, plur., 143, 2.

Ratio, circumlocutions w., 636, III.,

Ratum, a in, 590, 1.

Ravis, decl., 62, Il., 1. Re, insep. prep., 308; in compds., 344, 6; e in, 594, 2. Re for re, 594, 2, N. 3.

-re for ris, 237.

Reading, rhythmical, 607. Reapse, p. 73, foot-note 5.

Reason, clauses expressing, 516.

Recollection, adjs. of, w. gen., 399, I., 2; gen. of ger., p. 315, foot-note 2. Recordor w. gen., 406, II.; w. acc., 407. N. 1, (1); w. abl. w. de, 407, N. 2.

Recūsō, constr., p. 279, foot-note 2. Red, insep. prep., 308; in compds.,

344, 6.

Reduplicated pronouns, 184, 4; perfeets, 255, I. Quant. of first two syllables of trisyllabic reduplicated perfects, 591. Increm. of reduplicated forms of verbs, 586, 2.

Reduplication in pres., 251, 6; perf., 255, I.; compds., 255, I., 4. Refert, constr., 406, 111.; 408.

Reflexive pron., 184, 2. Reflex. use of pron., 448; 449.

Refusing, constr. w. verbs of, 505, II. Regarding, verbs of, w. two accs., 373; w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2); w. gen., 403.

*Rēgnō* w. gen., 410, V., 3.

RELATIVE PRONOUN, 187; correlat., 191; use, 453. Abl. of relat. for postquam, 430, N. 2. Relat. attracted, 445, 8. Relat. clause w. subj. of desire, 483, 5; purpose, 497, I.; result, 500, I.; 503; to characterize indef. or gen. anteced., 503, I.; after ūnus, solus, etc., 503, II., 1; atter dignus, indignus, idoneus, aptus, 503, II., 2; atter comparat. w. quam, 503, II., 3. Relat. clause in condit., 507, 2; concess., 515, III., w. N. 4; causal clause, 517. Relat. clause w. infinit., 524, 1, 1); supplied by particip., 549, 4. Position of relat., 569, III.; before prep., 569, II., 1. Position of relat. clauses, 572, II., N.

Relaxo, relevo, w. abl., p. 219, foot-

note 1.

Relieving, constr. w. verbs of, 414, 1. Relinquo w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2). Rěliquus, meaning, 440, N. 2. Rěliquis facere, 401, N. 4.

Remaining, constr. w. verbs of, 501, I., 1.

Remembering, constr. w. verbs of, 407. Reminding, constr. w. verbs of, 409,

I.; 410, I. Reminiscor w. gen., 406, II.

Repeated action denoted by imperf. indic., 469, II.; plup. indic., 518, N. 2, 2); imperf. or plup. subj., 518, 1.

Repelling, dat. w. verbs of, 385, 2. Repentinus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 5.

Reposco w. two aces., 374, 2. Requies, decl., 137, 1; quant. of inerem., 585, III., 3.

Res, deel., 120; w. adjs., 440, N. 4. Circumlocutions w. res, 636, III., 10. Resisting, dat. w. verbs of, 385, I.

Respublica, deel., 126. Restat w. subj., p. 276, foot-note 2.

Restat w. subj., p. 2.6, 1001-note 2.
Restis, decl., 62, III.
Restrictive clauses w. quod, 503, N. 1.
RESULT, subj. of, 500 ff.; substant.
clauses of, 501; peculiarities, 502;
in relat. clauses, 503; w. quin, 504;
w. special verbs, 505. Position of
clauses of result, 572, III., N.

Rēte, decl., 63, 2, (2).

Reticentia, 636, I., 3; 637, Xl., 3. Rex, decl., 59; quant. of increm., 585, III., 3.

 $Rh\bar{e}a, \bar{e} \text{ in, } 577, 1., 2, (3).$ Rhetoric, figures of, 634, N.; 637. Rhetorical questions, 523, II., 2. Rhythm, caesura of, p. 357, foot-note 1. Rhythmic accent, 599. Rhythmical reading, 607.

Rīdeō w. acc., 371, III., N. 1. Rivers, gend. of names of, 42, I., 2; 43, 1.

-ro, suffix, 320, II.

Rogo w. two aces., 374, 2; w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 1.

Roma, decl., 48, 4.

Roman pronunciation of Lat., 5 ff. Roman authors, 640. Roman calendar, 641 ff.; money, weights, and measures, 646 ff.; names, 649. Roots, 314. Root-stems, 315.

Lie without gen. plur., 133, 5.

Ristrum, ristra, 133.

-rs, deel. of nouns in, 65, 3, (1); 90. Rudis w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Rules of syntax, 558.

Rūs, deel., 64, N. 3; 133, N.; constr., 350, 2, 1). Rure, 412, 1. Rūrī, 426, 2,

-rus, compar. of adjs. in, 163, 3. Kutum, quant. of pen., 590, 1.

S, sound, 7; 13, II.; changed to r, 31; dropped, 36, 3, N. 3; 36, 5, 1). Stems in s, 61. Deel. of nouns in s, Stems in 8, 61. 64; 65, 3; 79 ff.; quant. of increm., 585, I., 2; 585, II., 2. Final syllables in a short before following consonant, 576, 1, N. 2. Final s dropped in poetry, 608, I., N. 3.

-s, patronymies in, 322.

-sā, suthx, 320, II.

Sitter, compar., 167, 2; w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3.

Saepe, compar., 306, 4. Sal, deel., 133, 5. Sal, sales, 132. A in sal, 579, 2; quant. of increin., 585, I., 4, (3).

Salix w. short increm., p. 343, foot-

note 2. Salüber, deel., 153, N. 1, 1).

Salūtāris without superlat., 168, 3;

w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Samnis, quant, of increm., 585, IV., 2.

Sane quam as adverb, phrase, 305, N. 4.

Sapiō w. aec., 371, III., N. 1.

Sapplie verse, 604, N. 1; 628, VI. and VII. Sapplie stanza, 631, II. and III.

Satis, compar., 306, 4; w. part. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3; compds. w. dat., 384, 4, N. 1.

Satum, a in, 590, 1.

Satur, decl., 150, N., 2).

Saving, constr. w. verbs of, 534, 1, N. 1, (2).

Scanning, 607, N. Scazon, p. 361, foot-note 1.

Seelus w. supine, 547, 1.

Scidi, i in, 590, 1.

Sciens w. force of Eng. adverb, 443. N. 1, (1).

Scilicet, 304, IV., N. 2. -sco, inceptives in, 337.

Sē, insep. prep., 308; in compds., 344, 6; ē in, 594, 2.

Second deel., 51 ff. Sec. conj., 207; 208; 225; 261 ff.; è in imperat., 581, IV., 3. Sec. pers. sing. of indef. IV., 3. you, 484, IV., N. 2.

Secondary tenses, 198, II. Secondary stems, 315; 318. Second. suffixes, p. 154, foot-note 4.

Secundum w. acc., 433; 433, I.

Securis, decl., 62, 111.

Secus, 'sex,' defect., 134. Secus, 'otherwise,' p. 145, foot-note 5. Sēd tor sē, 184, 5. Sēd, insep. prep., 308; in compds, 344, 6. Sed, 310, 3; 554, 111., 2. Non solum

(non modo or non tantum)-sed etiam, 554, I., 5. Sed, sed tamen, resumptive, 554, IV., 3. Position

of sed in poetry, 569, III., N. Sedes, gen. plur., p. 36, foot-note 4. Sedtamen, 554, III., 3.

Seeming, pred. gen. w. verbs of, 403.

Selling, gen. w. verbs of, 405. Semel, p. 145, foot-note 4.

Sementis, decl., 62, III.

Semi-deponents, 268, 3; 283; 465, N. 2.

Sēminex, defect., 159, II. Semi-vowels, 3, II., 1.

Senarius, 603, N. 6; 622. Senātus, decl., 119, 3.

Sending, two dats. w. verbs of, 390, N. 1, 2).

Seneca, metres, 633, II., notes 2 and 3. Senex, decl., 66; compar., 168, 4.

Sentences, syntax, 345 ff.; classification, 345 ff.; simple, 347; 357; complex, 348; 359; compound, 349; declarat., 350; in indir. disc., 523, I.; imperat., 354. See also Exclama-

tory, Interrogative, Conditiona'. Separation, dat. w. verbs of, 385, 4, Abl. of separat., 413; 414. 2). Separat. producing emphasis, 561, HÍ.

Sepse for se, 184, 5.

Sequence of Tenses, 491 ff.; peculiarities, 495.

Sequitur w. subj., p. 276, foot-note 2. Series, how begun and continued, 554,

Series, defect., 122, 2.

Serving, dat. w. verbs of, 385, I.

Servus, deel., 51.

Sescenti used indefinitely, 174, 4.

Sēsē for sē, 184, 4. Sesterces, 647.

Sestertium, sestertium, 647, III. and IV.

Sestertius, 646 : 647.

Sētius, quō sētius for quōminus, 497, 2, N.

Seu, 310, 2.

Ships, gend. of names of, 53, 1, (2).

Short syllables, 575.

Shortening of vowels, 21.

Showing, two aces. w. verbs of, 373. Sī, derivat. and meaning, p. 73, footnote 2; 311, 3; p. 281, foot-note 2; in condit., 507 ff.; w. perf. indic., 471, 5; w. plup. indic., 472, 2; w. subj. of desire, 483, 1. Si in concess., 515, II. Si = to see whether, 529, 1, N. 1. Si quidem, 507, 3, N. 2. -si, suffix, 320, II. -Si in Greek dats..

68, 5; i in, 581, I., 1. Sic, p. 73, foot-note 2; 304, III., 2; 305, V.; 551, N. 2; redundant, 636, III., 7.

Sicut, sicuti, 311, 2.

Siem for sim, 204, 2. -**silis**, adjs. in, 333.

Silver age, 640, II., 2.

Silvester, deel., 153, N. 1, 1). -sim in perf. subj., 240, 4; in ad-

verbs, 304, I., 1. -simä, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 9.

Simile, 637, I. Similis, compar., 163, 2; w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3.

-simo, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 9. Simple sentence, 347; 357. Simp. clements, 357, 2; subject, 358; pred., 360. Simple words, 313, N. 2.

Simul, p. 145. foot-note 4; 311, 1; w. abl., 437, 2. Simul atque, āc in temp. clauses, 518; w. perf. indic.,

Simulāc, simulatque, 311, 1; in temp. clauses, 518; w. perf. indic., 471, 4. Sin, 311, 3; in condit., 507 ff.; p. 282, foot-note 1. Sin aliter, 552, 3.

-sin in Greek dat. plur., 68, 5. Sine w. abl., 434.

Singular, 44; wanting, 131.

Sinistrā, constr., 425, 2. Sinō, constr., p. 310, foot-note 1. I in situm, 590, 1.

Siquidem, 311, 7; 507, 3, N. 2; quant. of first syllab., 594, 10. Sitiō w. acc., 371, III., N. 1.

Sitis, decl., 62, II., 1. Sire, 310, 2; 554, H., 3.

Size, gen. of, 419, 2, 1).

Skill, gen. w. adjs. of, 399, I., 2; gen. of ger., p. 315, foot-note 2.

Smell, acc. w. verbs of, 371, III. -so, suffix, 320, II. So in fut. perf., 240, 4.

Socer, decl., 51, 4, 3).

Socio w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1. Sōl, decl., 60; 133, 5; ō in, 579, 2. Solum, non solum—sed etiam (vērum

etiam), 554, I., 5. Sōlus, decl., 151; for Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1, 2. Gen. of sōlus w. possess., 398, 3. Sōlus quī w. subj., 503, II., 1.

Solvo, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. 'Son,' apparent ellipsis of, 398, 1, N. 2. Name of adopted son, 649, 3.

Sonants, 3, II., 5, 1; 3, N. 1, II., 1. Sons, defect., 159, II

-sōrius, ō in, 587, III., 4.

Sors, abl., 64, N. 3. Sotadean verse, 626, N. 2.

Source, abl. of, 413; 415. Space, acc. of, 379.

Sparing, dat. w. verbs of, 385, II. Special constr. w. infin., 539. Gen.

in spec. constr., 398.

Species, decl., 122, 2 Specification, acc. of, 378; abl., 424.

Specimen without plur., 130, 1, 4). Specus, decl., 117, 1, 2); p. 50, footnote 1; gend., 118, (2).

Speech, parts of, 38. speech, 634 ff. Figures of

 $Sp\bar{e}s$ , decl., 122, 2. Sphinx, deel., p. 38, foot-note 3.

Spirants, 3, II., 4, 2. Spolio, eonstr., p. 219, foot-note 1.

Spondaic line, 610, 3.

Spondee, 597, I.

Square measure, Rom., 648, V. Stadium, 648, IV., N.

Stanza, 606. Stanzas of Horace, 631. Statuō, constr., 498, I., N.; p. 274, foot-note 1.

Stem in decl., 46. Stem-characteristic, stem-ending, 46, 3. Stem in Decl. I., 48, 1; Decl. II., 51, 1; Decl. III., 57, 1; 58, 1; 59, 1; 60, 1; 61, 11; 62, 1; 64, 1, 1); 66, 1 and 3; 69-98; Decl. IV., 116, 1; Decl. V., 120, 1. Stems of verbs, 202, notes 1 and 2; 203, N. 2; formation of, 249 ff. Stems of words, 315 ff. Stem-syllables, quant., 588 ff.; variation in, 593, 1. Primitives w. riation in, 593, 1.

long stem-syllables, 595. Sterilis w. gen., p. 219, foot-note 4. Stirpe, constr., 415, II., N. Stiti, i in, 590, 1.

Sto w. abl., p. 226, foot-note 1. E in 1 steti, a in statum, 590, 1.

Strigilis, decl., 62, III.

Striving, constr. w. verbs of, 498, II. Strix w. short increm., p 343, footnote 2.

Strong enesura, p. 356, foot-note 4. Strues, deel., p. 36, foot-note 4.

Studeo, constr., 498, H., N. 1; p. 274, foot-note 2.

Studiosus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; w. gen. of ger., p. 315, foot-note 2. Sub in compds., 344, 5; w. dat., 386.

Sub w. ace, or abl., 435; 435, N. 1;

435, I.

Subject, 356, 1; simple, 358; complex, 359; modified, 359, N. 1. Subj. nom., 365. Subj. indef., 518, 2. Infin. as subj., Subj. ace., 536. 538. Subject clauses, 501, I. Subjects compared, 535, 5. Dat, w. ndjs. signifying subject, 391, I. Position of subj., 560.

Subjective gen., 396, II.

SUBJUNCTIVE, 196, II. Syntax of subj., 477 ff.; tenses, 478 ff.; sequence, 490 ff. Subj. in prin. clauses, 483 ff.; in subord, clauses, 490 ff. Subj. of desire, 483; 484; potent., 485; 486; of purpose, 497 ff.; of result, 500 ff.; in condit., 507 ff.; in concess., 515; in eausal elauses, 516; 517; in temp. clauses, 519 ff.; in indir. dise. 523 ff.; in indir. clauses, 529 ff.; in indir. questions, 529, I. Subj. in questions of surprise, 486, II., N. Subj. of desire for imperat., 487. 4. - Is in subj., 581, VIII., 4; -is, 581, VIII., 5.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES, 348, N. 2; 490 ff.; in indir. disc., 524. Subord. conjs., 311; 555; elements, 357, 1;

position, 572.

Substantive pron., p. 70, foot-note 3. Substant. clauses, 532 ff.; 540; of purpose, 499, 3; of result, 501. Substantives, see Nouns.

Subter w. acc. or abl., 435.

Suffixes, 46; ease-suffix, 46, 1. Suffixes in format, of words, 313 ff. Primary suffixes, 320.

Sui, decl., 184; use, 448; 449; placed next quisque, 569, I., 2. I in sibi, 551, I., 2.

Suitableness, constr. w. adjs. of, 391,

I.; 391, II., 1, 2).

Sum w. dat., 387; two dats., 390, N. 1, 1); pred. gen., 403; 404; abl., 415, III., N. 1; p. 226, foot-note 1. Summus, meaning, 440, N. 2.

Supellex, decl., 64, N. 3; 130, 1, 4). Super in compds. w. acc., 372; dat., 386; abl., 434, N. 1. Super w. acc.

or abl., 435; 435, N. 2; 435, I. Superlative, 160; irreg., 163; wanting, 168; 169; formed by maxime, 170. Superlat. w. part. gen., 397, 3; p. 209, foot-note 3. Use of superlat., 414.

Superne, e final in, 581, IV., 4.

Superus, compar., 163, 3.

Supine, 200, III.; endings, 248. Supine system, 222, III. Supine stem, 256. Supine wanting, 262, notes I and 2; 265; 266; 267, 3; 271, 1 and 2; 272, 1; 272, notes 1 and 2; 276; 278; 281; 282; 284; 284, N. 2. Supine in seq. of tenses, 495, IV. Use of sup., 545 ff.; sup. in um, 545; 546; w. eō, 546, 2; w. īrī, 546, 3; sup. in \$\tilde{u}\$, 545; 547. Quant. of pen. of dissyllabic supines, 590.

Suprā w. ace., 433; 433, 1. Supremus, meaning, 440, N. 2. Surds, 3, II., 5, 2; 3, N. 1, II., 2. -suriō, desideratives in, 338.

Surname in names of Roman citizens, 649, 2.

Sūs, deel., 66.

Suus, 185; 448; 449; placed near quisque, 569, I, 2.

Syllabic caesura, p. 356, foot-note 4. Syllables, 8; 14; 15, 3; quant., 575 Final syl. of verse either long or short, 605.

Syllepsis, 636, II., 2. Symbols, num., 180. Synaeresis, 608, III.

Synaloepha, synapheia, 608, I., N. 5.

Syncopated pron., 186, 3. Syneope, 605, VII.; 635, 2.

Synecdoche, 637, IV.

Synesis, 636, IV., 4; 363, 4; 438, 6; 445, 5; 449, 3; 461

Synizesis, 608, HL, N. 3.

Synopsis of Deel, III., 69-98. Syn. of conj., 223-230. Syntax, 345 ff.; sentences, 345 ff.;

nouns, 362 ff.; adjs., 438 ff.; prons., 445 ff.; verbs, 460 ff.; particles, 551 ff. Rules of syntax, 558. Arrang. of words and clauses, 559 ff. Figures of syntax, 634, N.; 636.

Systole, 608, V1.

## т

T, sound, 7; 13, H. T changed to d, 33, 2; assimilated to n or s, 34, 1; dropped before s, 36, 2; when final, 36, 5, 2). Stems in t, Gend. of nouns in t, 111. Stems in t, 58. enanged to s in supine, 256, Quant. of final syllables in t, 579, 2; 589, H.; 580, Hl., N. 2, 1).

-ta, -ta, suffixes, 320. Nouns in -ta,

325.

Tuedet, constr., 409, III.; 410, IV. Taking away, dat. w. verbs of, 385, 2. Tātis, 186, 4; correlat., 191. Talpa, gend., 48, 5.

Tam, p. 75, foot-note 1; 304, I., 4; 305, V.; meaning and use, 551, N. 2. Tam—quam, 555, II., 1.

Tamen, 310, 5; 554, III., 2; compds., 554, III., 3.

Tametsi, 311, 4; in concess., 515, II.

Tametsi, 311, 4, In Sandam in questions, 351, 4.
Tandem in questions, 351, 4.
Tanquam, 311, 2. Tanquam, tan-Tanquam, 311, 2. Tanqua quam sī, in condit., 513, II. Tantisper, 304, V., N. 2.

Tantopere, meaning and use, 551, N. 2. Tantum abest ut, 502, 3. Non tantum-sed etiam (vērum etiam), 554, I., 5.

Tantus, demonstr., 186, 4; correlat., 191; w. interrog., 454, 4. Tanti, constr., p. 215, foot-note 2; 405. Tantum abest ut, 502, 3.

-tar, suffix, 320, I.

-tās, nouns in, 325. Taste, acc. w. verbs of, 371, III.

-tāt, sulfix, p. 157, foot-note 9. Tautology discriminated from pleonasm, p. 371, foot-note 1.

Taxis for tetigeris, 240, 4.

Teaching, two aces. w. verbs of, 374. Ted for te, 184, 5.

Tempero, constr., 385, 1.

Temptum, deel., 51.
Temporal conjs., 311, 1; 555, I.
Temp. clauses, 518 ff.; position, 572, 11., N.

Tempus est w. infin., 533, N. 3. Tener, decl., 150, N., 1).

Tenses, 197; prin. and histor., 198. Tense-signs, 242; 243. Tenses of indic., 466 ff.; subj., 478 ff.; imperat., 487 ff. Seq. of tenses, 490 Tenses in temp. clauses, 518, notes 1 and 2; in indir. disc., 525. Tenses of infin., 537; particip., 550. Tento, constr., 498, H., N. 1.

Tenus, p. 145, foot-note 5; w. gen., 398, 5; w. abl., 434; after its case, 434, N. 4; 569, II.

Ter, e in, 579, 3.

-ter, suffix, 320, II.; p. 155, foot-note 1. Adverbs in -ter, 304, IV. Nouns in -ter, 326; decl., 60, 3.

Terence, peculiarities in versification, 578, N. 2; 580, III., notes 3 and 4; metres, 633, III.

Terminational compar., 161 ff.

Terra, constr., 425, 2. Terrae, locat... p. 229, foot-note 1.

Terrester, decl., 153, N. 1, 1). Testis sum, constr., 535, 1., 3. Tete for te, 184, 4.

Tetrameter, 603, N. 2; dactylie, 616. Tetrapody, 597, N. 4. Tetrastich, 606, N.

Thebais, a in, p 345, foot-note 1. Thematic vowel, p. 94, foot-note 1;

251.Thesis, 600.

Thinking, constr. w. verbs of, 534, 1, N. 1, (2); 535, I., 1.

Third deel., 55 ft.; adjs., 152 ft.; -o in, 581, II., 2. Third conj., 209: 210; 227; 228; 269 ff.

Threatening, dat. w. verbs of, 385, IL. -ti, suffix, 320; p. 157, foot-notes 7

and 9.

-**tiā**, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 1. Tibur, deel., 66, 4.

-tīcius, adjs. in, 333, 5.

-tico, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 8.

-ticus, adjs. in, 330, 1.

-tiē, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 1. -tilis, adjs. in, 333.

-tim, adverbs in, 304, I., 1.

-timā, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 9; -tima, p. 157, foot-note 9.

Time, adverbs of, 305, N. 2, 2). of time, 379; abl., 429; 379, 1. Time denoted by preps. w. acc., 379, 1; 429, 2; w. abl., 429, 1. Time since, 430, N. 3. Adjs. of time, 443, N. 2. Time denoted by particip., 549, 1. See also Temporal clauses.

Times *or* morae, 597. Timeō, constr., 385, 1; p. 274, footnote 3.

-timo, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 9.

-timus, a, um, suffix, p. 157, foot-note 9. Adjs. in -timus, 330, 1.

-tio, -tiōn, -tiōni, suffixes, p. 158, foot-note 1. Nouns in -tio, 326. Tis for tui, 184, 5.

Titles, superlat. as, 444, 1, N.

-tīvus, adjs. m, 333, 5. Tmesis, 636, V., 3.

'To,' how translated, 384, 3.

-to, suffix, 320, II. -tō for tor in imperat., 240, 5.

Tonitrus, decl., 117, 1, 3).

-tor, suffix, 320, 11. -tor, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 1. Nouns in -tor, 326; as adjs., 441, 3. -tōriā, -tōrio, suffixes, p. 158, footnote 4. O in toria, 587, III., 4.

-tōrium, -tōrius, ō in, 587, 111., 4. Tot, demon., 186, 4; correlat., 191. Totiens, 305, IV

Totus, demon., 186, 4.

Totus, decl., 151, 1; w. loc. abl., 425, Totus for Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1, (2).

Towns, gend. of names of, 42, II., 2; constr., 428; whither, 380, II.; whence, 412, II.; where, 425, II.

-tra, sutlix, 320, I. Trador, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2).

Trans in compds., 344, 5; w. acc., 372; w. two aces., 376. Trans w. acc., 433; 433, 1.

Transitive verbs, 193, I.

Translation of subjunctive, 196, II.; infin., 200, I.

Trees, gend, of names of, 42, II., 2: names of, in -us, deel., 119, 2.

Tres, decl., 175.

Tribrach, 597, II.

Tribuō w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2). Tribus, deel., 117, 1, 1); gend., 118,

-**tric**, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 4. Tricolon, p. 352, foot-note 3.

Trihemimeral caesura, p. 356, footnote 4.

Trihemimeris, 597, N. 4.

Trimeter, 603, N. 2. Tripody, 597, N. 4. Tristich, 606, N.

Tristior tristis, deel., 154. Tristis w. force of Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1,

Trisyllabie reduplicated perfects, quant. of first two syllables, 591.

-trix, nouns in, 326; as adjs., 441, 3. -tro, suffix, 320, 11.

Trochaic verse, 603, N. 1; 618 ff.; stanza, 631, X.; caesura, p. 356, foot-note 4.

Trochee, 597, II.; irrational, 598, 1, 1). Tropes, 637, V., N.

trum, nouns in, 326.

Truths, gen., expressed by pres. indie., 467, II.; in condit., 508, 5; 511, 1.

Tt changed to st, ss, or s, 35, 3. Tv, deel., 184. I in tibi, 581, I., 2.

-tu. -tū. suffixes, 320.

-tuā, -tūdon, suffixes, p. 158, footnote 3.

Tuli, u in, 590, 1.

Tum, p. 75, foot-note 1; 304, 1., 4; 305, IV.; In series, 554, I., N. 2. Tum-tum, cum-tum, 554, I., 5.

tum, nouns in, 323.

Tumultus, decl., 119, 3.
Tune, 304, 1., 4; 305, IV.
-tuo, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 1. -tūrā, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 4. Nouns in -tūra, 326.

turiō, desideratives in, 338.

-tūro, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 4. Turpis w. supine, 547, N., 1.

Turris, decl., 62.

-tūrus, sutfix, p. 155, foot-note 1.

Tus, defect., 133, N

-tus, adverbs in, 304, IV.; nouns in, 326; adjs. in, 328.

-tūs, nouns m, 324; 325.

Tussis, decl., 62.

-tūt, -tūti, suffixes, p. 158, foot-note 3.

Tuus, possess., 185.

Two aces., 373; 374. Two dats., 390. Two copula-Two negatives, 553. tives, 554, I., 5.

 $\overline{U}$  w. sound U, ŭ, sound, 5; 10; 11. of w, 5, 4; 10, 4, 5). U parasitie, p. 4, foot-note 5; interchanged with v, 29; dropped, 36, 4. nouns, 116. Nouns in u, defect., Sup. in ū, 545; 547. Ū or u, final, 580, 1.; in increments of deel., 585; 585, V.; conj., 586; 586, IV. U as consonant, 608, III., N. 2. u, suffix, 320.

Uber, neut. plur., 158, 1. Ubi, 304, 111., 2; 305, 1.; p. 151, footnote 1; 311, 1; w. part. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3; in temp. clauses, 518; 471, 4.  $\vec{I}$  in  $ub\bar{i}$ , 581,  $\vec{I}$ ., 2; quant. of ult. in compds., 594, 9.

Ubicumque, ubiubi, p. 75, foot-note 3; 305, N. 1.

Uhiris, 305, I.

-ubus for -ibus, 117, 1.

-ūceus, ū in, 587, 111., 1. -ūcus, adjs. in, 333, 5.

-ūdō, ū in, 587, l., 2.

-**ūgō**, nouns in, 324, N.; u in, 587, 1., 2.

Ui, sound, 12, 2.

-uis for -ūs, 117, 2. -ula, nouns in, 321; u in, 587, II., 3.

-ulentus, u in, 587, IV., 1. -ūlis, u in, 587, I., 4.

*Ullus*, decl., 151, 1; use, 457. Ultimus. Ulterior, ultimus, 166. force of, 440, N. 2; 442, N.

Ultra w. acc., 433; 433, 1.

-ulum, -ulus, in nouns, 321; in

adjs., 332; 335, 5; compar., 169, 3. U in -ulum, -ulus, 587, 11., 3.

-um in gen. plur. of nouns, 57; p. 36, foot-notes 3 and 4; p. 38, foot-note 2; 67; adjs., 158, 2. Nouns in -us and -um, heteroclites, 139; heterogeneous, 144. Adverbs in -um, 304, I., 3, 1); num., 181, N. 2; superlat., 306, 6. Supine in -um, 545; 546; w. eō, 546, 2; w. tri, 546, 3.

-**ūm** for ārum, 49, 3; ōrum, 52, 3.

-**ūna**, *ū* in, 587, I., 5.

Uncia, 646, 1, N.; 646, 3, 1)-4). Unclothing, acc. w. verbs of, 377.

-uncula, -unculus, diminutives in, 321, 3.

Unde, undelibet, 305, III.

-undus, -undi, for -endus, -endi,

Unguis, decl., 62, IV.

Union, dat. w. verbs denoting, 385, 4,

Unlike, gen. w. adjs. meaning, 391, II., 4, (2).

Unquam, 305, IV.

-unt, suffix, 320, II.

 $\bar{U}nus$ , decl., 151, 1; 175; followed by abl. w. prep., p. 209, loot-note 1; gen. of, w. possess., 398, 3. *Unus* w. force of Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1, (2). *Ūnus quī* w. subj., 503, II., 1.

-ūnus, û in, 587, l., 5.

Unusquisque, decl., p. 77, foot-note 1. -uo, suffix, 320, 11. Denom. verbs in -nō, 335.

-ur, suffix, 320, II.; decl. of adjs. in, 150, N.; gend. of nouns in, 111;

Urbs, deel., 64.

Urging, constr. w. verbs of, 499, 2.

-**uriō**, *u* in, 587, IV., 2.

-us, suffix, 320, II.; adverbs in, 304, I., 3, 1); nouns in, 326, 2; 327. Us for e in voc., 52, 2. Deel. of nouns in us, 51; 85; 116; m üs, 84; quant. of increm., 585, V., 1. Deel. of names of trees in us, 119, 2. Neuters in us, Deel. II., 51, 7. Gend, of nouns in vs,  $\tilde{u}s$ , Deel, III., 111; 115. Nouns in us and um, heteroclites, 139; heterogeneous, 144; 145. Compar. of adjs. in us preceded by vowel, 169, 2. Us or ūs final, 580, III., w. N. 2; 581, IX. Useful, dat. w. adjs. signifying, 391,

1.; ad, 391, 11., 1, (2).

Uspiam, usquam, 305, I. Usque w. preps., 433, N. 2. Usque w.

acc., 437, 1.

 $ar{U}sus$  w. abl., 414, IV.  $Ut,\ ut\bar{t},\ 304,\ 111.,\ 2\ ;\ 305,\ V.\ ;\ 311\ ;\ p.$ 151, foot-note 1. *Ut*, *ut primum*, as soon as, 471, 4. *Ut* w. subj. of desire, 483, 1; w. subj. in questions, 486, II., N.; w. subj. of purpose, 497, II.; after verbs of fearing, 498, III., N. 1. Ut ne, ut non, for ne, 499, 1. It omitted, 499, 2 502, 1. *Ut* w. subj. of result, 500, 11. *Ut* si w. subj. in condit., 513, 11. Ut in concess., 515, 111. Ut-sic, ut—ita; involving concess., 515, N. 5. *Ut—ita* w. superlat., 555, II., 1. Ut w. relat., 517, 3, 1). Ut in temp. clauses, 518. Ut quisque—ita, 458, 2. Quant. of ult. of uti in compds.,

594, 9. -ut, deel, of nouns in, 78.

*Ūter*, decl., 65, 1, 2). *Uter*, decl., 151, 1; correlat., 191. Utercunque, uterlibet, uterque, utervis, dccl., 151, N. 2. Uterque, constr.,

397, N. 2; meaning and use, 459, 4; w. plur. verb, 461, 3. utervis, 581, VIII., 3, N.

Uti, see It.

-ūtim, ū in, 587, I., 7.

Utinam w. subj. of desire, 483, 1. *Ūtor*, constr., 421, I.; 421, N. 4; gerundive, 544, 2, N. 5.

Utpote, 311, 7; w. relat., 517, 3, 1). Utrinde, 304, 111., N.

Itrum, 310, 2, N.; 311, 8; 353.

-ūtus, # in, 587, I., 7.

Un avoided, p. 15, foot-note 1. -uus, adjs. in, 333, 5.

-ux, decl. of nouns in, 97; -ax, 97, N. 1.

V originally not distinguished from u, 2, 5. Sound of r, 7. V interchanged w. u, 29; treated as guttural, 30, N. 1; changed to c, 33, 1, N.; dropped, 36, 4.

-**vă**, suffix, 320, I. Vacuus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Vae, 312, 3; w. dat., 381, N. 3, 3). Vāh, interp., 312, 1.

Valde quam in adverb. phrase, 305,

N. 4. Value, gen. of, 404. Gen. w. verbs of

valuing, 404. Vannus, gend., 53, 1, (2).

Variable rad. vowel, 20, N. 2; 57, 2; 58, 1, 2); 60, 1, 2); 61, 1, 2). Variation in quant. of stem-syllables,

593, 1. Varieties of verse, 609. Vās, decl., 136, 2.

Vas, a in, 579, 3; quant. of increm.,

585, I., 4, (2).

Vates, decl., p. 36, foot-note 4. l'é, insep. prep., 308; é in, 594, 2. Ve, vel, 310, 2; 554, H., 2. Vel-vel, 554, H., N. Position of vel in poetry, 569, III., N.; in prose, 569,

11I., 4. Velut, 311, 2; 554, II., 2. lut si, in condit., 513, II. Velut, ve-

Venālis w. abl., p 226, foot-note 1. Venit in mentem w. gen., 406, N.

Venter, decl., 65, 1, 2).

Ver without plur., 130, 1, 4); quant. of increm., 585, III., 3.

Verb stems, format, of, 249 ff.

Verbal endings, unalysis of, 241 ff. Verbal roots, 314, I. Verbal nouns in a defect., 134. Verbal nouns w.

infin., 533, 3, N. 3.

VERBS, ETYMOLOGY OF, 192 ff.; classes, 193; voice, mood, tense, numb., pers., 194 ff.; infin., ger., sup., particip., 200; conj., 201 ff.; prin. parts, 202; paradigms, 204 ff.; comparat. view, 213 if.; verbal inflections, 220 ff.; systems, 222; synopsis, 223 ff.; dep. verbs, 231 ff.; periphrast. conj., 233 ff.; peculiarities in conj., 235 ff.; analysis of verbal endings, 241 ff.; tense-signs, 242 ff.; mood-signs, 244 ff.; pers. endings, 247 ff.; format, of stems, 249 ff.; pres. stem, 250; 251; perf. stem, 252 ff.; sup. stem, 256; classification, 257 ff.; Conj. I., 257 ff.; Conj. II., 261 ff.; Conj. III., 269 ff.; Conj. IV., 284 ff.; irreg. verbs, 289 ff.; defect., 297 ff.; impers., 298 ff.; derivation, 335 ff.; denom., 335; frequent., 336; incept., 337; desiderat., 338; dimin., 339; compds., 344.

VERBS, SYNTAX OF, 460 ff.; agreement, 460 fl. Verb omitted, 368, 3; 523, I., N. Voices, 464; 465. Indic. and tenses, 466 ff. Subj. and tenses, 477 ff.; subj. in prin, clauses, 483 ff. Imperat. and tenses, 487 ff. Subord, clauses, 490 ff.; seq. of tenses, 490 ff. Purpose, 497 ff.; result, 500 ff.; condit. sentences, 506 ff.; concess, clauses, 515; causal clauses, 516; 517; temp. clauses, 518 ff.; indir. disc., 522 ff.; indir. clauses, 528 ff. Infin., 532 ff. Substant, clauses, 540. Ger., 541; 542. Gerundive, 543; 544. Supines, 545 ff. Particip., 548 ff. Position of

modifiers of verb, 567.  $-\tilde{O}$ , o, in verbs, 581, II., 2; -ā, 581, III., 3. Vere, 304, 11., 2.

Vereor, constr., p. 274, foot-note 3.

Vergil, versification, 630.

Vero, p. 146, foot-note 1; 310, 3; 554, III., 2 and 4; position, 569, III.

Verse, caesura of, p. 357, foot-note 1. Verses, 601; name, 603; varieties, 609. VERSIFICATION, 596 ff. ERSIFICATION, 596 ff. Feet, 597. Verses, 601; names of, 603; 604. Figures of pros., 608. Varieties of verse, 609.

Versus, p. 145, foot-note 5; w. acc., 433; as adverb, 433, N. 2; position,

569, II.

Vertō w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2).

Verū, decl., 117, 1, 2). Vērum, 310, 3; 554, III., 2; nōn sõlum (non modo or non tantum)— vērum etiam, 554, I., 5. Vērum, vērum tamen, resumptive, 554, IV., 3.

Verumtamen, 554, III., 3. Vervex, quant. of increm., 585, III., 3.

 Vescor, constr., 421, I.; 421, N. 4.
 Vesper, decl., 51, 4. Vesper (for vesperis), decl., 62, N. 2. Vespera without plur., 130, 1, 4).

Vespertīnus, ī in, p. 345, toot-note 5. Vestrās, dccl., 185, N. 3. Vestrī, vestrūm, 446, N. 3.

Vetō, constr., p. 310, foot-note 1; vetor, 534, 1, N. 1.

Vetus, decl., 158; compar., 163, 1, N.; 167, 2, Viciniae, locat., p. 229, foot-note 1.

Vicinus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Vicis, defect., 133, 1. Vidê, ê in, 581, IV., 3. Vidêlicet, 304, IV., N. 2.

Videor, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (1). Vir, decl., 51, 4, 1); i in, 579, 3.

Virgő, deel., 60. Virtus, decl., 58.

Virus, decl., 51, 7; gend., 53, 2. Vis, decl., 66; p. 38, foot-note 4;

quant. of increm., 585, IV., 2. Vi.edum, 555, 1., 1.

-vo, suffix, 320, II.

Vocative, irreg., 52, 2; 68, 3. Syntax, 369. Voc. in exclamat., 381, N. 3, 1). Position of voc., 569, Vl. I in Greek voc. sing., 581, I., 2; -a in, 581, III., 2; -es in, 581, VI., 3; -ūs in plur., 581, IX., 2.

Voices, 195; 464; 465.

Volo w. eth. dat., 389, N. 2; w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 1; 499, 2; w. infin., p. 310, foot-note 1. Volens w.

dat. of possess., 387, N. 3. Increm. of *volo* and compds., 586, 1. *Volucer*, decl., 153, N. 1, 1). Volucris, p. 36, foot-note 3. -volus, compds. in, 342, 1; compar., Võtī, constr., 410, III., N. 2. Vowels, 3, I.; sounds, 5; 9 ff.; 15, 1. Classification of vowels, 3, 1. Phonet. changes, 20 ff. Vowels lengthened, 20; shortened, 21; weakened, 22; contracted, 23; changed, 24; assimilated, 25; dissimilated, 26; dropped, 27; interchanged with consonants, 23; 29. Variable vowel, 20, N. 2; 57, 2; 58, 1, 2); 60, 1, 2); 61, 1, 2). Favorite vowels, 24. Vowels developed by liquids or nasals, 29, N. Order of vowels in strength, 22.

251. Vowel-stems, compar. of adjs. in, 162, N. Final vowel elided, 608, I.; shortened in hiatus, 608, II., N. 3. Quant. before two consonants or a double cons., 651. Vulgus, deel., 51, 7; gend., 53, 2.

Themat. vowel, p. 94, foot-note 1;

Vulpēcula, p. 159, foot-note 1.

-vus, adjs. in, 333, 5.

Want, gen. w. verbs of, 410, V., 1. Watches of night, 645, 1. Way, adverbs of, 305, N. 2, 3). Weak caesura, p. 356, foot-note 4.

Weakening of vowels, 22; diphthongs,

Weights, Roman, 646; 648.

'Wife,' apparent ellipsis of, 398, 1,

Winds, gend. of names of, 42, I., 2. Wishing, constr. w. verbs of, 535, II. Without, constr. w. verbs of being without, 414, I.

Women, names of, 649, 4. Words, formation of, 313 ff.; derivation, 321 ff.; arrang., 559 ff.

## X

X, sound, 13, II.; dropped, 36, 3, N. 2. Decl. of nouns in x, 64; 65, 3; 91 ff.; gend., 105; 108. X lengthens preceding syllable, 576, II.

## Y

Y only in foreign words, 2, 6; sound, 5, 2; 10 ff. Decl. of nouns in y, 73; gend., 111. Y or  $\bar{y}$ , final, 580, I.; in increments, 585.

-ys, decl. of nouns in, 68, 2; 86; Ys final, 580, III. gend., 107. -vx, -vx, decl. of nouns in, 97, N. 2.

## $\mathbf{z}$

Z only in foreign words, 2, 6; lengthens preceding syllable, 576, II. Zeugma, 636, II., 1.

## TABLE

# SHOWING THE CORRESPONDING ARTICLES IN THE TWO EDITIONS.

OLD. NEW.	OLD,	NEW.	OLD, NEW	
1-41-4	198, 119	7, N. 1	258, II., 429	,
5, 69	198, 2	198	259	
710	198, 319	7, N. 2	260259	3
811	199	199	260, 1 and 2257, notes	s
912	200	201	1 and	3
10-1213	201	202	261259,	ı
1314, 1	202		261, 1 and 2259, note:	š
1414, 2	203,		1 and :	
155	204-212		262259,	
166	213		263260	
177	214		26426	
188	215		265265	3
1915	216, 217, 1	223	266262, N.	L
2016	217, II		267262, N. 1	
2116, I.	218, I		26826:	
2216, II.	218, II		269, I265	
2316, III.	219, I		269, II	
2417	219, II		270, I267,	
2518	220, I		270, II., 1	
2619	220, II		270, II., 2267, 5	
27	221 222		270, III267, 3	
28, 2, 2)	223		271268	,
29	224		272, I	
3022	225		273, I., 1271, 1	
3127	226		273, 1., 2272, 1	
3223	227-230		273, II., 1271, 1	
26, 28	231		273, II., 2272,	
3330	232		273, 111	
3436, 5, 1)	233		274, 275, 1273, 27	
3531, 1	234		275, II	
—32, 35	235		276276	
3636, 2	236	237	276, 1277, N	
37-12037-120	237	238	277-279277-279	
120, 3121	238	239	280272, N. 1	
120, 4122	239		281272, N. :	3
121123	240, I 2	13, 214	282281	
12247, note 1	240, H. and HL2	15, 216	282, I281	
123	241-2562		282, II28:	
124-189121-189	257	256, 1	283-285283-285	
190190, 1	258, I., 130; 3	6, 3, 1	286, I280	
191190, 2	258, I., 2 258, I., 3	36, 2	286, II	
	258, 1., 3	33, 1	287287, N.	
192-195192-195	258, I., 434		288-303288-308	
196, I	258, I., 536,	3, N. 3	304305, N. 9	
196, II	258, H., 1 and 2 258, H., 3	33, I	305300	
131	۰٬۰۰۰, ۱۱., ۵۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰۰	94, 14.	306307	

61b.         NEW.         61b.         NEW.           307.         308         364, 365.         3.55         149, II. 425, I. N.           310-312.         310-312.         310-312.         310-312.         310-312.         313, II.         343.         366.         367.         368.         367.         311.         313, II.         314.         308.         369-371.         369-371.         311.         314.         320.         371.         5.         371.         17.         372.         419.         414.         119.         3.         2.         3.         3.         3.         3.         3.         3.         3.         3.         3.         3.         3.         3.         3.         3.         3			
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	old. New.	OLD. NEW.	old. New,
313, II.         313         367, 368         378         419, IV. 421, III.; 425, IN. N.         313, II.         313, N.         2	307308	364, 365365	419, II425, 1, N.
313, II.         313         367, 368         378         419, IV. 421, III.; 425, IN. N.         313, II.         313, N.         2		366	419, 111421, 11.; 414,
313, 1         313, N         2         311, 4         352         314, 315         2         311, 5         371, 5         371, 1V         419, V         414, 10, 104         419, 2         421, notes 1 and 2         419, V         419, 2, 421, notes 1 and 2         419, 4, 11, 421, N, 4         419, 4, 31, 421, N, 3         421, N, 3         421, N, 3         421, N, 3         421, N, 3         421, N, 3         421, N, 3         421, N, 3         421, N, 3         421, N, 3         421, N, 3         422, N, 3         422, N, 3         422, N, 3         422, 1, N, 3         422, 2, 412, N, 3         422, 2, 412, N, 3         422, 2, 412, N, 3         423, 1, 142, N, 3         422, 2, 412, N, 3         423, 3, 425, N, 3         422, 3, 425, N, 3         423, 3, 425, N, 3         424, 329, 3, 425, N, 3         426, 3, 3, 412, N, 3         423, 3, 425, N, 3         424, 329, 3, 412, N, 3         424, 329, 3, 412, N, 3         423, 3, 412, N, 3         424, 329, 3, 341, N, 3         424, 329			1. and III.
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		200 251	419, 17 421, 111. ; 425,
$\begin{array}{c}$	212 1 212 V 0		
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		9-1 5 9-1 IV	410 0 401 putce 1 and 0
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		271 6 464	419, 2421, notes 1 and 2
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		371. 7	419 4 1) 491 N 4
318         .324         373, 374         .4         .534         420         .367; 11; 412         .320, 321         .326, 327         374, 4         .534         421, 425, L and I; 412         .329, 323         .328         .374, 6         .376         .422, 2         .425, 1 and 2         .222, 323         .425, 3         .426, 3         .425, 3         .426, 3         .425, 3         .426, 3         .427, 428         .428         .429         .424         .427, 428         .428         .429         .424, 425, 3         .428         .429         .424         .429         .429         .330, 3         .828, 383         .829, 383         .828, 383         .828, 383         .828, 383         .829, 383         .429         .424, 430         .429         .422         .422         .424		372	419, 4, 3)
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			420
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		374, 4	421425, I. and II.: 412
322, 323         328         374, 6         376         429, 2         412, 2           324         329         374, 7         377         423         425, 3           325         330         375         536         423, 1         412, 3           326         331         376         —         424         425, 3           327         332         377         570, 11         —         427, 428           328         333         378         379         426         427         428           329         334         379         380         426         429         421         421         422           329         334         379         380         426         429         426         420         322         1         336         881         381         428         419, II, 419, 2         426         420         420         420         420         420         422         420         420         420         420         420         420         422         424         420         420         422         424         420         422         424         420         420         424         420         420 <t< td=""><td></td><td></td><td>422425, 1 and 2</td></t<>			422425, 1 and 2
825         330         375         536         423         1         412         3         326         331         376         —         424         423         424         425         327         328         328         333         378         379         425         425         427         428         328         328         338         378         379         426         423         427         420         423         423         427         420         322         11         336         381         335         380         378         427         420         322         11         336         381         338         383         382         383         382         383         382         383         382         383         382         383         382         383         382         383         382         383         382         383			422, 2412, 2
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			423425, 3
327.         332         377.         570, II.         —         427, 428           328.         333         378.         379         380         426.         429           330, 381         335         380.         378         426.         429           332, 1.         336         381.         381         428         427.         430           332, 11.         336         381.         381.         381         428         419, II.; 419, 2           332, 11.         338         384, 396.         384         428         419, II.; 419, 2         424           332, 11.         338         384, 396.         384         429.         424         424         424         428         429.         424         424         428         429.         424         428         429.         424         430         431         431         432         432         442         432         442         432         442         432         440         432         441         432         441         432         441         432         441         433         441         433         441         440         441         539         341         441         <			
328         333         378         379         425         413-415           329         334         379         380         426         423           330         381         385         380         378         427         430           332         1         336         381         381         382         383         382         383         428         419         H.; 419         42           332         11         337         382         383         382         383         429         424         428           332         111         338         384         396         584-396         396         393         429         424         428         429         424         428         429         424         428         429         424         428         429         424         428         429         424         428         429         424         428         429         424         428         429         424         428         429         441         140         429         441         140         429         441         140         429         441         140         424         441         441			
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			427, 428
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		9-0	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			420423
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			498 410 II · 410 9
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			429 424
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			430, 431
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		396, III397	432-440432-440
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	533-337304, 305	397398	441, 1 and 2441
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		398, 1396, V., N. 3	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	558, 2341, 5	398, 2395, N. 2	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		398, 3 396, H., A.; 396,	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	220 1 242 H	200 4 200 HI N 1	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		205 N 2	465_465_II 464
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		398. 5 384. 4. N. 2	465. 1-3
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		399, 1-4	466-474466-474
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			475
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	344346	401, 402401, 402	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$345, 1, \dots, 347$	402, 1 and 2404, 405	477479, 480
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		402, 3401, N. 4	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	040, III		
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	346 II 9 353		
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	346. II., 3		481. III
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	246 III 254	410-410, 2	481. III., 1 and 2 496
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	346, IV355		481, IV 495, I'.
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	\$47356		481, V 495, IJ f.
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			481, VI495, J.7.
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		412, 413367; 411	482495, 1., VI., and VII.
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	951 950	414-114, 2415; 416	405 400 402 400
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		414, 8419, 111.	486 4 and 6 485 otes
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		414, 5 and 6415, L.	486. 5
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		414,7.,418;419.I.:419.1	487, 488
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	355361, 2	415	488, 1-5,, 83, 1-5
357-361 $ 417$ $417$ $490$ $497$ , 1; 500	356361, 3	416422	489497; 500
362, 363     362, 363   418     423   491     497, 1       363, 4     364   419, 1     421, I     492, 493     498, 499			490497, 1; 500
303, 4		418423	491497, 1
	303, 4364	419, 1421, 1.	492, 493 498, 499

OLD. NEW.	OLD, NEW,	OLD. NEW.
493, 4483, 3, N.	552, 3 and 4533, II.	607574
494500	553, 1IV539	608575
495501	553, V533, II.	609575, foot-note 1
495, 2, 2)486, II., N.	554540	610
496502	555540, I.	611576, II.
497497, 2	556, I538, 1; 540, N.	611, 2578
498504	556, I., 1 and 2501,, 2 556, II. and III501, I., 1	612577
499	556, H. and HI501, L., 1	613579
500497:500	557540. 1.	614580, I.
500, 3503, N. 3	558. L. 1535. L.	615581, İII.
501503	558. l., 2 498. l.	616581, IV.
<b>—</b> 505	558, II., 1533, I., 1 558, II., 2498, I., N.	617580, I.
502506	558, H., 2, 498, L. N.	618581, I.
503, I, and II513	558, III	619580, I.
503, III507	558, IV501, II., 1	620581, II.
504509, 510	558. V535. HL	621580. IL
505513, I.	558, VI498, I.	622580, III.
506513, II.	558, VI., 2 and 3535, II.	623581, V.
507-510507-510	559541	694 581 VI
510, 2511, 2	560, 561542	695 581 VII
511-511, 2511	562543, 544	624581, VI. 625581, VII. 626581, VIII.
511, 3	563542, I.; 544, 1	697 581 IX
512511	564:542, II.; 544, 2	627581, IX. 628580, III.; 576, I. 629582
513507, 2	565542, III.; 544, notes	600 540
514514	2 and 5	630583
515, 516515	566542, IV.; 544, 2	631584
517, I	567, 568545	632585
	569546	
517, II	570547	633
518, II	571-574550	
		635585, III. 636585, IV.
519517 520516	575548	
	576-578549	637585, V.
521, I	579549, 5	638585
521, II	580549, N. 2	639586
522519	581549, N. 1	640586, I.
523520	582, 583551	641586, H.
524528, 2, N.	584552	642586
525, 526529	585553	643586, III.
527528; 529, II.	586553, N.	644
528522	587554	645
529, 530523	588555	646587, II.
531, 532524, 525	589556	647587, III.
532, 2 and 3527	500557	648587, IV.
532, 4	591558	—588, 589
533526; 530	592559	649595
534-537487; 489	593560	650592
538, 1488	594561	651590
538, 2	595562	652591
531	596563	653593
539	597564	654594
540-544537	598565	655596
545-547536	599566	656597
548532	600567	657, 658598
549-549, 3538	601568	659599
<b>549</b> , <b>4</b>	602569	660600
550533-535	603571	661601
551535	604572	662602
552, 1	605573	663603
552, 2	606570	664504

# 430 TABLE OF OLD AND NEW ARTICLES.

OLD.	NEW.	OLD.	NEW.	OLD.	NEW.
665	605	681	619	703	635
666		682	621	704	636
66760			622		637
668	607, N.	684	623	<b>—</b>	638, 639
669	608	685	624		640
670	609		625		641
671	610	687	626	708	642
6726		688, 68	9628, HV.	709	643
673,		690	628, VI. and VII.	710	641
674611,	4 and 5	691	627, 628	711	645
	612	691, V	629, I.	712	646
675		692	628, IX.	713	647
676		693	631, XV.		648, I.
676, 2	615	694	631, XIV.	715	
677, I		695		716	
677, II		696-69	9630	717	648, IV.
677, III		700	631	718	648, V.
678633, II.	, note 3	701	632	719	649, 1
679			633		650
680	620	1702	634	l —	651













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